Investigating Sexual Assault and Rape among Young Adults in the UK: Victimisation and Perpetration Prevalence, Risk and Motivational Factors, the Role of Consent and a Comparison of Student and Non-Student Groups

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Abstract

Official statistics and media reports highlight the high prevalence rate of sexual victimisation among young adults in the UK. However, academic research in this area is behind that of other countries, such as the United States, and investigations conducted in the UK fail to compare student and non-student populations. Using a Pragmatic philosophical foundation, as well *routine activity theory* and *cognitive distortion theory* as theoretical frameworks, the project aimed to better understand sexual victimisation and perpetration by identifying the prevalence rates among 18-30-year-olds, exploring the extent that demographical/risk factors are related to victimisation or perpetration, as well as identify how sexual consent is related to reported victimisation/perpetration. A mixed methodology was used in two phases to holistically explore the research questions by combining quantitative and qualitative methods. Phase one used a large-scale quantitative questionnaire in three parts (prevalence/demographical vulnerability, risk factors and consent), which was completed by 544 18-30-year-old adults. Each area of the questionnaire was analysed separately to highlight significant factors that were more common among reported victims or perpetrators of a number of sexual assault and rape types. Binominal logistical regression was then conducted in stages to determine the predictability of these factors on victimisation and the extent they can explain the variance between victims and non-victims. Significant factors included gender, marital status, dating app use and attitudes towards pornography. Phase two then built upon phase one by conducting two focus group discussions with 8, 18–30-year-old adults concerning their thoughts and observations surrounding phase one findings. The discussions yielded interesting themes, such as those who are vulnerable to assault or rape and the dangers of sexting and online dating etc. As a result of these findings a visual model of victimisation and perpetration was developed. The implications of this project are the contribution the findings have to our theoretical understanding of sexual victimisation/perpetration among a young adult population and provide information that can be used in support/prevention strategies, as well as highlight how a mixed methods approach can be beneficial.

Chapter 1 – Introduction to the Project

1.1 Introduction

Sexual assault and rape continue to be a crime that affects many people around the globe (World Health Organisation, 2002). Even though sexual assault and rape crimes are prevalent in each country, identifying common trends between country populations are difficult due to the various different ways that sexual assault and rape are defined by each country. For example, in Canada all sexual crimes are defined as sexual assault with varying degrees of severity during trial to avoid bias (Justice laws Website, 2018; LEAF, 2014), whereas in the UK, rape, assault by penetration and sexual assault are classed as separate crimes (Sexual Offences Act, 2003).

The main aim of this project is to investigate sexual assault and rape crimes among a sample of young adults in the UK. Although there has been an increase in research exploring sexual crimes among student populations (Fisher & Cullen, 2000; Fisher, Daigle & Cullen, 2010), research is still far behind that produced in countries such as the United States, Canada, or South Africa. Additionally, the vast majority of sexual assault and rape research into young adults solely test either student or non-student populations, thus many lack a comparison between these two groups (Buddie & Testa, 2005). Moreover, most of the research, awareness and prevention strategies concerning sexual assault and rape among young people are targeted towards university students and not young people in general. As an increasing number of young people choose different paths instead of university every year, such as apprenticeships or full-time employment (Department of Business, Innovation & Skills, 2016), current research and intervention strategies that target students may not be relevant to a proportion of young adults in the UK.

Therefore, this project will look to address the current gap in the knowledge base concerning sexual assault and rape among young adults in the UK. Additionally, this project will look to test a variety of factors that can potentially increase the vulnerability of individuals to sexual assault and rape victimisation and motivate perpetration, which have normally been tested separately.

1.2 Definition of Sexual Assault and Rape in the UK

The Sexual Offences Act (2003) states that an individual commits a sexual offence if they intentionally enact a sexual behaviour on another without a) that persons consent to the act, or b) that the defendant does not reasonably believe that a person was consenting to the sexual act. Rape, which by UK Law can only be committed by a man (Fisher & Pina, 2012), involves an offender penetrating the anus, mouth, or vagina of another with their penis. However, other adult on adult offences that are covered by the act include 'assault by penetration', where the anus, mouth or vagina of a person is penetrated by other objects than a penis, such as fingers or a foreign object, sexual assault and 'causing others to engage in sexual acts without their consent', where an individual touches another sexually without their consent or forces them to engage in sexual behaviour with themselves, others or the offender but without penetration. The Sexual Offences Act (2003) also covers instances of sexual coercion, where individuals may only agree to sexual activity due to non-physical pressure or threats that make them afraid to indicate their refusal. Therefore, even though a victim may verbally say yes, they may not fully consent due to the coercive behaviours of the offender.

Overall, the Sexual Offences Act (2003) gives a clear indication of what is considered a sexual offence in the UK. Even though some academics have criticised the UK definition as suffering from gender bias due to females being unable to be convicted of rape against a man if they force the victim to penetrate them (Fisher & Pina, 2012), the definition outlines the sexual abuse that young people may experience.

1.3 Negative effects of Sexual Assault and Rape

The prevalence of sexual assault and rape among young adults in the UK is discussed later in this project. However, there are numerous media reports of young people becoming victims of sexual violence and the terrible experiences they have. For example, there have been reports of a large number of young women suffering from sexual assaults at university (Jeffreys, 2019), as well as numerous examples of young women and men experiencing rape victimisation, either with someone they know or strangers in secluded locations (BBC, 2018a; 2018b; 2019; 2020).

These experiences can have a profound effect on a victim, and they can suffer from a number of negative effects as a result of their victimisation. Victims may suffer physical injuries from their assault or rape that may need serious medical attention (Tewksbury, 2007). Research has also indicated that sexual victimisation can cause individuals to develop a number

of negative mental health issues, including but not exclusively, anxiety, depression, low self-worth, and suicidal thoughts (Artime, Buchholz & Jakupcak, 2019; Carpenter, 2009). Finally, victims of sexual violence have been found to have difficulties in forming future romantic relationships (Mason & Lodrick, 2013), and as a result of their victimisation find themselves becoming distant from their family or friends, either due to the shame they feel as a result of their abuse or the label of 'victim' that they find themselves with (Lowe & Balfour, 2015; Walker, Archer & Davies, 2005).

As victims of sexual violence are not to blame for their victimisation, it is important that they are supported to help alleviate the negative effects they can suffer as part of their victimisation. However, it is also important to try and identify and develop support and awareness strategies that may help to prevent victimisation in the first place. Academic study offers an opportunity to identify personality, situational, attitudinal, and behavioural factors that may increase sexual victimisation risk or motivate offenders to commit their crimes. The identification of these factors may then help to inform support and awareness strategies to try and help young people avoid victimisation while engaging in the behaviours they wish to. This project looks to build on the current knowledge base to identify factors that may increase risk or motivation.

1.4 Current Support and Awareness Strategies in the UK

The NHS (2018) and counselling support services, such as the Rape Crisis Centre (Rape Crisis: England and Wales, 2020), provide detailed support and advice for victims of sexual violence, such as medical assistance, counselling, and support with prosecuting the offender of the crime. However, in regard to reducing victimisation levels the current awareness and support strategies in the UK that are in place are only partially effective due to a number of issues. On a national level, the Violence against Women and Girls (VAWG; HM Government, 2019) is a government initiative that funds and creates initiatives that aim to reduce violence against women and girls, including sexual violence. The initiative funds many effective strategies of reducing violence, however, by concentrating specifically on women and girls, the initiative fails to fund strategies to reduce male and non-traditional gender victims, thus potential victims will not receive support to help avoid victimisation.

A strategy introduced across a number of universities in 2015 was the 'I heart consent' campaign. This strategy, introduced by the NUS and Sexpression:UK organisation (NUS. 2015) looked to educate students about sexual consent and tackle rape culture by altering rape

supportive attitudes and behaviours to make sure victims were not blamed for their assaults. The initiative also looked to empower students to respect the need for consent in sexual situations. Overall, the strategy was found to create a greater understanding of knowledge of consent among the students who took part. However, one major issue with this strategy is that it assumes that sexual harassment and assault among students is a result of a lack of knowledge and understanding about consent. However, there is evidence that young people do in fact have a very high knowledge of when a sexual situation is consensual (O'Bryne, Hansen & Rapley, 2007). Therefore, it is possible that strategies surrounding consent may have little impact on reducing victimisation levels, as it is likely that motivated perpetrators will target and force or coerce others into unwanted sex even if they fully understand what is or is not consensual.

Another strategy that has been found to be successful among young people in the past is the 'Ask for Angela' campaign (apolitical, 2016). This campaign looked to provide support to women who found themselves in an unwanted sexual situation in social environments, such as bars or clubs. The strategy centred around a woman asking a member of staff if 'Angela was working' to indicate that they were in trouble and needed support. The member of staff could then help the distressed individual leave the premises and get home safely without the offending partner noticing. Initial evidence suggested that the campaign was successful in the establishments that adopted it (apolitical, 2016). However, this support strategy is based on a number of important factors to be successful. The affected individual needs to be aware of the strategy and trust that they will be supported if they report it to the establishments staff. Moreover, all members of staff need to be fully educated and be consistent with their approach with dealing with these requests. The absence of one of these factors would prevent support being adequately provided. Additionally, traditional stereotypes and an acceptance of common myths may prevent members of staff from supporting unexpected victims, such as male victims. Therefore, the campaign shows promise, but could potentially be improved so that a wider variety of victims are supported consistently.

One other potential method that police forces and local governments use to try and reduce victimisation rates is through the use of informational posters. In an interesting article on Buzzfeed (Warren, 2015), the effect these posters have is questioned if a poster is poorly designed. This is due to the onus that some posters can place on potential victims of sexual assault and rape to be responsible for their own victimisation (Warren, 2015). For example, as alcohol or being alone may increase the risk of sexual assault or rape, a few posters have suggested to individuals to stop going out without friends or not drink as much alcohol to

reduce victimisation. The posters themselves therefore promote victim blame as they suggest that women and girls that do not follow these suggestions may be victimised. As it is never the victim's fault for their experiences, instead of warning potential victims of what not to do, future awareness and support strategies should instead look to support students in engaging in the behaviour they wish to, but in a safer manner. The Rape Crisis Centre in England and Wales also suggests that informational posters should instead target potential perpetrators to try and educate them about what would be classed as assault and when consent may not be reliable (Rape Crisis Centre, 2020).

There are a number of issues with past awareness and support strategies for those most vulnerable of sexual assault and rape, especially younger adults in the UK. This project will therefore look to increase our knowledge and understanding of these crimes so that future awareness, support, and prevention strategies may be better informed.

1.5 Theoretical Framework – Routine Activity Theory

Routine activity theory (RAT) has been extremely popular in explaining how crime occurs and which factors come together to increase the likelihood of a crime occurring (Spano & Freilich, 2009). The theory suggests that crime is not randomly distributed throughout society and states that for a crime to occur there first needs to be the presence of a vulnerable, attractive target to be victimised, a motivated offender to commit the crime and a lack of guardianship (Felson & Cohen, 1980). Situational factors, such as being in an area that provides greater access to potential offenders, interacts with individual factors and lifestyle choices to create a greater chance that a crime will occur. However, even though the theory discusses victim lifestyle choice as a potential reason for why crime occurs, it should be noted that it is never a victim's fault. In fact, the RAT instead suggests that motivated offenders actively seek out situations where they have an advantage over attractive targets, thus highlighting that responsibility lies firmly with the offender (Schwartz, DeKeresedey, Tait & Alvi, 2001). Instead, the identification of these factors can be used to attempt to develop support and awareness strategies to support potential victims or prevention strategies to help reduce sexual crimes.

The RAT has been used throughout previous literature to identify risk factors that can lead to a number of crimes occurring, such as anti-gay violence (Waldner & Berg, 2008). However, the RAT has also been previously used in an attempt to identify factors and lifestyle choices that can lead an individual to become more vulnerable to sexual crime victimisation, although to a lesser degree (Schwartz et al., 2001). Specifically, research has looked at applying

RAT to female sexual assault and rape victimisation (Deslauriers-Varin & Beauregard, 2010), male victimisation (Tewksbury & Ehrhardt Mustaine, 2001) and college sample victimisation in the US (Ehrhardt Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Franklin, Franklin, Nobles & Kercher, 2012; Schwartz, Dekeardsey, Tait & Alvi, 2001). Specific risk factors that have been found to increase sexual crime victimisation include; alcohol/drug use (Ehrhardt Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Franklin et al., 2012; Lorenz & Ullman, 2016; Stotzer & MacCartney, 2016; Tewksbury & Ehrhardt Mustaine, 2001), high levels of dating and consensual sexual partners as well as high levels of socialising in bars and clubs (Franklin et al., 2012) and background characteristics, such as family life and family structure (Ehrhardt Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Franklin & Menaker, 2016; Tewksbury & Ehrhardt Mustaine, 2001).

However, the theory itself and current research into RAT does suffer from several issues. Firstly, the vast majority of research that uses the RAT in relation to sexual assault and rape victimisation is conducted either in the US using college samples (Spano & Freilich, 2009), or fails to compare differences between college and non-college samples. Consequentially, risk factors and lifestyle routines that have been found to increase vulnerability may not be applicable to individuals from different countries and may not fully reflect a young 18-30-year-old sample. Another issue with the original RAT lies with its assumptions, both with the simplistic way it describes how a crime occurs without fully exploring the fundamental reasons why a factor may increase risk, and how it suggests that offenders are just motivated to commit crimes without fully exploring factors that may increase offender motivations and linking them back to victim lifestyle choices and lack of guardianship factors (Finkelhor & Asdigian, 1996). Subsequent research that explores offender motivational factors and victim lifestyle choices highlights the importance of identifying offender motivations to fully understand how lifestyle choices and situational factors can lead to victim vulnerability.

However, even though the RAT does have a number of issues in relation to how it classifies crime and potential risk factors, as well as assuming that an offender is motivated to offend without a full explanation of the contributing factors, the overall theory is an effective framework to group factors that can increase vulnerability to sexual crimes and explain the interaction between these to increase vulnerability. Therefore, the aim of this thesis is to use the RAT to identify potential risk factors and then look to break the underlying functions of these factors down to identify why they may increase risk of victimisation or could help perpetrators target victims.

Moreover, as a large amount of research has already been conducted surrounding certain risk factors in relation to RAT, such as alcohol/drug abuse and family background, some elements were specifically left out of this project. Instead, this thesis will look at more modern lifestyle choices and risk factors to determine their predictive power with sexual victimisation. For example, studies that are 10 or more years old will not consider the effect online dating and online sexual activities may have on the likelihood that someone will be sexually victimised. However, as one of the main aims of this project is to identify the difference between students and non-students and their risk of sexual crimes, victimisation by intoxication for sexual contact, attempted rape and completed rape will be included in this analysis as undergraduate students were found to be significantly more likely to report this type of victimisation in Chapter 3.

1.6 Theoretical Framework – Routine Activities and Cognitive Distortion Theory

In relation to offender motivation, the RAT tends to overlook specific contributors to why an offender feels motivated to commit an offence and instead tends to just assume their willingness to engage in criminal behaviour (Finkelhor & Asdigian, 1996). However, perpetrator prevention strategies are only effective if they successfully target specific risks that can motivate or lead an offender to commit a sexual crime (Ward, Hudson, Johnston & Marshall, 1997). Based in cognitive psychology, one explanation of why someone would commit a sexual offence is through maladaptive distortions within an individual's cognitive processes (Ward, Polaschek & Beech, 2006). In the sexual offence literature, a cognitive distortion is defined as cognitive processes, such as schema, that allow an offender to excuse, rationalise, and justify the sexual abuse of another (Helmus, Hanson, Babchishin & Mann, 2013; Ward et al., 2006). The cognitive distortions themselves are created through the individual acquiring easily accessible pre-existing expectancies and beliefs. Once gained, these expectancies and beliefs cause behavioural information to be processed in different ways to those who have not developed cognitive distortions (Ward et al.,1997; Ward et al, 2006). For example, an individual may have distorted views based on prior beliefs that lead them to think it is okay to sexually abuse a child in certain situations, such as if they have not hurt them too much (Abel, Becker & Cunningham-Rathner, 1984; Helmus et al, 2013). Pre-existing expectancies and beliefs that can lead to cognitive distortions are developed through previous personal experiences, such as a past experience with sexual abuse, or the acquisition of these beliefs through observing family and friends. For example, a person who is in a social group

that is more likely to accept common negative sexual beliefs about women is more likely to acquire the same beliefs (Schwartz et al., 2001).

In a qualitative analysis of self-reported perpetrator narratives, Hipp, Bellis, Goodnight, Brennan, Swarout and Cook (2017) found that perpetrators were likely to accept attitudes that blamed the victim for their own assault, as well as provide a further number of justifications and excuses for why they assault their victims, including the acceptance of traditional sexual scripts and norms, blaming their assault on biological determinism and objectifying women as basic sexual objects. Moreover, Helmus et al (2013), found in their meta-analysis of sexual offence literature, that those who were more likely to accept negative attitudes towards rape, and therefore suffer from cognitive distortions regarding sexual offences, such as the acceptance of rape myths or the acceptance of negative sexual advice from peers, were more likely to commit multiple instances of sexual assault or rape against their victims.

The theory of cognitive distortions can therefore be used to explain why a perpetrator may be motivated to or provide opportunity to commit assault against another. If rape supportive attitudes are accepted by an individual, then they may be more likely to abuse another sexually. Prevention strategies should include methods that identify the commonly held distortions held by perpetrators so that strategies can successfully identify and change maladaptive cognitions in potential perpetrators. Even though a large amount of research has been conducted in this area previously, understanding the motivation of young offenders from both a university and non-university background is vital to determine the effectiveness of current prevention strategies and to determine if new ones need to be developed.

1.7 Conceptual Framework

After highlighting the theoretical background and framework for the project, a conceptual framework was created to highlight the processes involved with investigating sexual victimisation and perpetration among young people in the UK. Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework used to investigate factors relating to young adult sexual victimisation. Using the RAT as a theoretical basis, relevant factors that may increase sexual victimisation risk were identified through past literature, related to the RAT, and measured to identify the relationship between those factors and reported victimisation. Regression analysis was then conducted on relevant variables to determine the likelihood that the presence or engagement with those factors could increase the likelihood of victimisation occurring and the extent that they can

correctly identify the variation between reported victims and non-victims. However, the conceptual framework also highlights the need to explore the underpinning processes in how these factors may increase risk, which highlighted the need for the qualitative portion of the project.

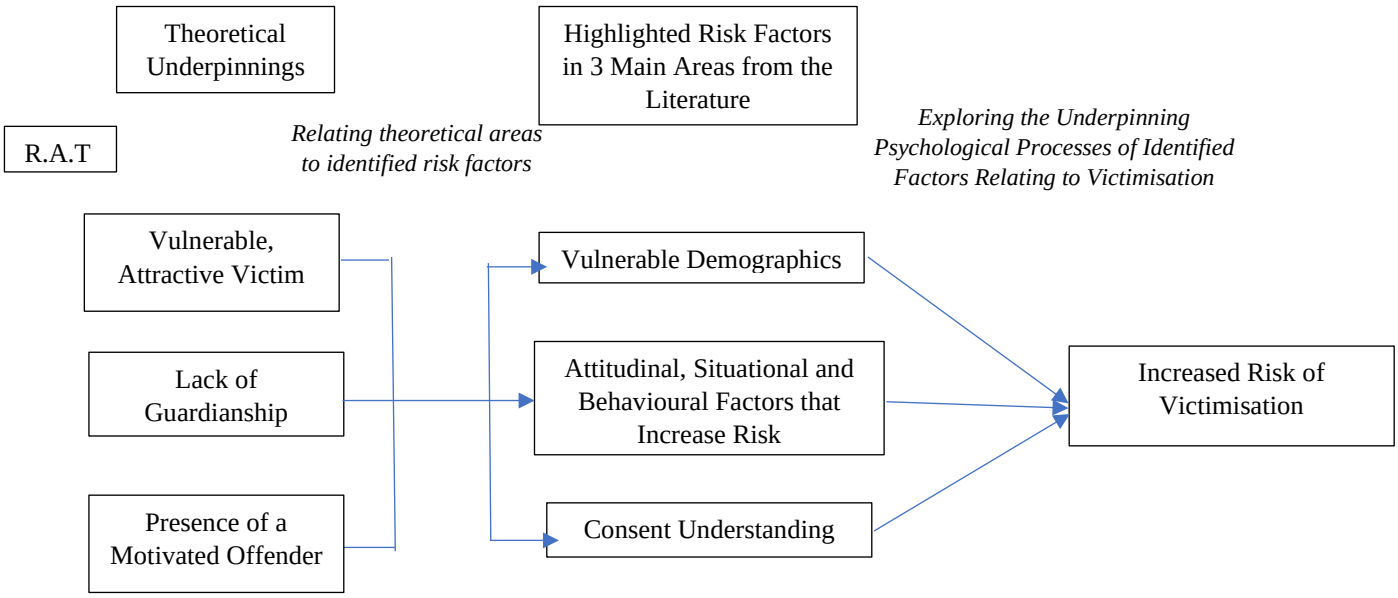

Figure 1: A conceptual framework for the sexual victimisation of young people.

Figure 2 also shows the conceptual framework developed to explain the increased motivation of perpetration. As with the victimisation conceptual framework, identified characteristics that were identified in past literature to potentially increase the likelihood of perpetration, as well as the potential populations that may offend, could be related to one of the main explanation areas of the RAT or through cognitive distortion theory. As with Figure 1, it is expected that the presence or engagement with these factors were expected to increase the likelihood of perpetration, although again the conceptual framework also highlights the need to identify the underlying processes involved with these factors in relation to increasing the likelihood of perpetration. However, the Cognitive Distortion Theory has been included to further expand on the Motivated Offender portion of the RAT and explain how negative attitudes, beliefs and influences can potentially increase the likelihood of perpetration. Each factor identified in past literature is discussed in future chapters.

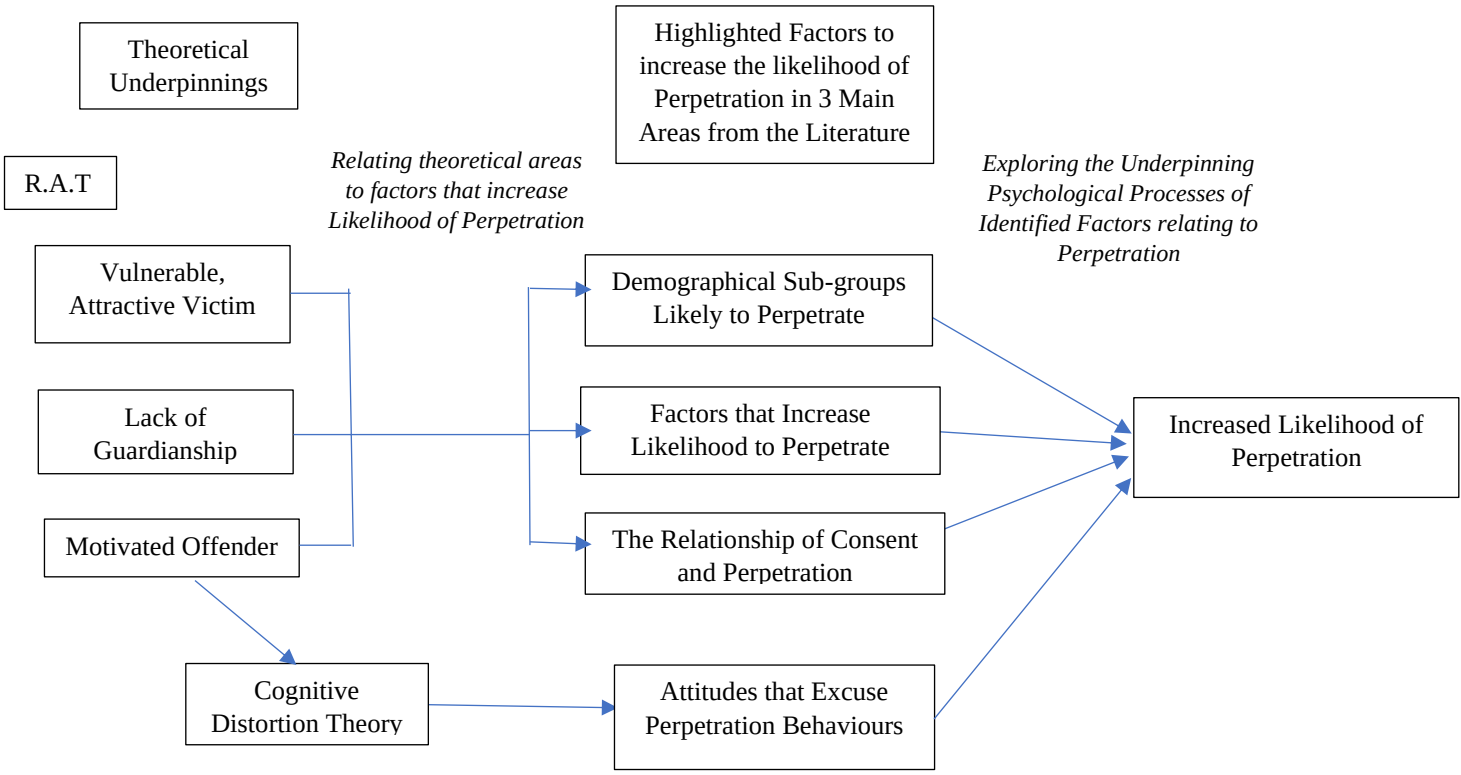

Figure 2: A conceptual framework to explain the perpetration of sexual crimes among young people.

1.8 Aims of the Project

Due to the gaps in our current knowledge concerning sexual victimisation among young people in the UK and how identified demographic and risk factors can explain the likelihood of victimisation or perpetration to occur, the main aim of the current project was to investigate and provide a deeper understanding of sexual assault, coercion and rape victimisation and perpetration among a sample of young, post eighteen adults in the UK. This aim is important, as a greater understanding of these crimes among young people in the UK will better inform support, awareness, and prevention strategies. To make sure this aim is met and to keep in line with the theoretical, philosophical, and conceptual frameworks of the project, the following sub-aims were also be explored:

1. To identify the prevalence rate of sexual assault and rape among 18-30-year-olds in the UK.

2. To determine the extent that identified demographical characteristics and risk factors can help predict victimisation/perpetration.
3. To investigate whether there is a difference between post eighteen young people who go to university and those who do not in regard to their victimisation/perpetration prevalence levels and their level of 'risky' attitudes and behaviours.
4. To identify potential ways to improve current awareness/support strategies aimed at young adults in the UK or suggest potential new strategies to help reduce sexual assault and rape crimes.

In line with the conceptual framework of the project and to meet the main sub-aims, the data collection and analysis methods were divided into four main themes, each with their own aims. These themes relate to measuring potential vulnerable demographics and risk factors and testing them in relation to how they explain the likelihood of victimisation and perpetration, both inline to the RAT and Cognitive Distortion theories. These included:

1. To determine the prevalence of sexual assault, coercive, and rape victimisation and perpetration levels among a young sample of people in the UK and to identify the extent that demographical features can predict victimisation.
2. To explore pre-identified sexual assault and rape risk factors among a young sample of people in the UK and determine the extent that these factors can predict victimisation.
3. To investigate a young sample of people in the UK's understanding of sexual consent and their attitudes towards communicating consent and how this interacts with reported victimisation/perpetration levels, as well as the extent that they can predict victimisation.
4. To use a qualitative confirmatory focus groups to discuss the findings from the previous analysis and identify the thoughts, attitudes, and concerns that a group of young people have towards sexual assault, coercive experiences, and rape among the youth in the UK, which will help explain the underlying processes concerning how identified factors increase the likelihood of victimisation.

These themes are explored and discussed in their own chapters.

1.9 Structure of the Thesis

To address the conceptual framework, and therefore the main aims and sub-aims of the project, the structure of this project has been presented in a specific manner. Firstly, Chapter 2 aims to introduce the methodology that was used throughout the project, including elements such as introducing the sample, clarifying the use of a mixed methods approach, outlining the philosophical and epistemological foundations of the methodology, explaining the materials used with both a quantitative questionnaire and qualitative focus group method of data collection, as well as discuss the ethical permissions and implications of the project.

Then, to cover the first stage of the mixed methods approach, chapters 3-5 address the main three areas highlighted through past research in relation to the quantitative questionnaire as included in the victimisation and perpetration conceptual frameworks. These are prevalence and demographical factors, risk factors/motivational factors that can contribute towards sexual crime and the role of consent with reported victimisation/perpetration. Each of these chapters include a literature review on the specific area, as well as the aims and hypothesis of the chapter, a full description of the data and results related to that section of the questionnaire with the inclusion of regression analysis that build upon the previous chapter, and a brief discussion of those results in relation to the aims and hypothesis of the chapter. The questionnaire analysis was split among three chapters for several reasons. Firstly, past research has indicated that either of these areas (prevalence, risk factor engagement or consent) can increase the likelihood of victimisation or motivating perpetration. Therefore, investigating each area separately provided the opportunity to highlight how demographical vulnerability, the presence of risk factors and the role of consent related to reported victimisation or perpetration before exploring the relationship between each area by using regression analysis, which ultimately helped to better understand the role of that area. Secondly, introducing significant factors to the regression models separately throughout each chapter helped to layer and build up the models logically, which also highlighted the need to look at a number of different contributing factors to better understand and predict victimisation without focusing on just one area. For example, in Chapter 3 introducing demographical factors into the regression models only accounted for a small, explained variance between victims and non-victims, whereas introducing risk factors and behaviours in Chapter 4 doubled the explained variance by the model. Finally, as very few pieces of research have looked to investigate such a large and diverse number of factors in relation to victimisation or perpetration in the study, organising the quantitative chapters in this manner allowed for a logical process to address this gap in knowledge by exploring each area,

and the factors associated with them, in greater depth which could not be completed in an amalgamated results chapter. Moreover, as one of the main aims of the project was to identify the difference between students and non-students in their victimisation vulnerability, exploring the differences between these groups systematically and logically throughout the three chapters helped to better create an understanding of the behavioural/attitudinal differences between them and how this relates to vulnerability. Therefore, chapter's 3-5 build upon the last chapters knowledge to build a better picture of sexual victimisation vulnerability and perpetration motivation among a sample of 18–30-year-olds in the UK.

Chapter 6 then provided an opportunity to summarise the findings from the previous 3 chapters, discuss how these findings interact throughout the regression analysis models and introduces the first stages of creating a visual model of victimisation and perpetration for 18–30-year-olds in the UK, based on the findings from the quantitative analysis and past research. Finally, Chapter 6 discusses the limitations of the quantitative stage of the methodology and further justifies the need for stage 2, which included the qualitative focus groups. Therefore, Chapter 7 builds upon the past chapters by introducing and explaining the need for the qualitative stage of the methodology, as well as the steps taken to ensure a high level of validity with data collection and thematic analysis. Due to the mixed methods used within this project, the focus group interview questions and structure of the discussion were built upon and informed by the structure and findings of the quantitative questionnaire. Therefore, when the themes generated from the thematic analysis procedure are discussed within Chapter 7, the discussion not only refers to the similarity of results with past research, but also how they differ or compliment the findings from the quantitative analysis.

Finally, Chapter 8 concludes the project by summarising the main significant findings highlighted throughout chapter analysis, as well as introduce the finalised visual model as informed by the qualitative analysis themes. The main implications of the research, areas of future investigation and limitations are also discussed within this chapter.

Chapter 2 – Methodology for the Project

To meet the main and sub-aims of the project, a mixed methodology was chosen. The overall methodological design of the project is discussed in this chapter. Literature justifications for the chosen measures and scales used are discussed with the literature reviews in each chapter. Moreover, each studies objectives and hypotheses are discussed in the relevant study chapter.

2.1 Using a Mixed Methods Approach Including the Philosophical and Epistemological Foundations of the Project

A mixed methods approach to social and human behaviour investigations refers to the use of combining both quantitative and qualitative research methods to investigate a research question (Tashakkori & Thompson Teddlie, 2010). For a full and detailed review of quantitative and qualitative methods see Creswell & Creswell (2018).

One philosophical foundation that easily allows the combination of quantitative and qualitative research methodologies is pragmatism. Pragmatism centres around the 'what works' principle (Biesta, 2010; Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011), meaning that the most important focus of research should be on the research question and its consequences and that multiple approaches can be used to address the problem in research. Therefore, the pragmatic philosophical stance allows researchers to adapt their approach to the ontology, epistemology, axiology, and methodology of their research so that they can use a combination of views and methods to address their research questions (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Unlike the polar opposite epistemological approaches to how and why we should gain knowledge of Positivism and Interpretivism, and by extension post-positivism and constructivism, a Pragmatic epistemological approach believes that the process of collecting knowledge is on a continuum where research methodologies and research design should be flexible and reflective so that the most appropriate methodology can be selected to answer a specific research question (Feilzer, 2010). As such, researchers following a Pragmatic epistemological view can select the most appropriate method for the research question and can use objective, scientific methods to collect large amounts of data and use subjective, in-depth research methods to gain knowledge of specific contextual environments and how individuals react with them. Moreover, Pragmatic researchers are both involved with the collection of their data and the generation of theories, and their methods can follow abductive reasoning, where

they can shift between induction and deduction. However, as Pragmatic researchers can be close to their data collection methods, there is a chance that their own beliefs and biases can have an effect on results. To resolve this a Pragmatic researcher should be reflexive during research to maintain validity. In regard to the current project, a Pragmatic epistemological view was taken as it gave the researcher the freedom to choose the most appropriate research methodology to address each research question and implement the mixed methodology successfully. Specifically, a quantitative, scientific, and objective survey was used to gather data to identify patterns and relationships between the data, then a qualitative, subjective focus group methodology was implemented during phase 2 of the mixed methods approach to obtain a deeper understanding and greater explanation of the patterns found within phase 1, as well as any comments that may have been missed.

Therefore, the quantitative questionnaire allowed for the collection a large amount of empirical data concerning sexual assault and rape victimisation and perpetration prevalence among a young sample of people in the UK, as well as data surrounding factors that may increase risk of victimisation or motivation of perpetration. Data from the questionnaire then provided several interesting findings through statistical analysis surrounding sexual assault and rape vulnerability in the sample. The pragmatic philosophical underpinnings of the research allowed a mixed methodology to be implemented and for qualitative focus groups to be conducted as stage 2 of the methodology so that the thoughts and observations of young people in the UK could be used to explain, confirm, and expand upon the quantitative results. Therefore, a sequential explanatory methodology was used within this project, where the qualitative findings are used to confirm and expand on quantitative findings (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The project and its subsequent data collection methods are seen as a mixed methodology approach as the qualitative focus group interview structure and topics are derived directly from the topics and results found from the quantitative questionnaire, thus the focus group study was an expansion on the quantitative mass questionnaire instead of a separate investigation.

2.2 Ethical Permissions

Ethical approval was sought and approved from the Human and Health Sciences ethics panel at the University of Huddersfield for both the quantitative questionnaire and qualitative focus group sessions. For a full review of the ethical considerations for this study see Appendix A

2.3 Ethical Feedback and Collaborative Comments on Qualitative Focus Groups

During the phase of the project where ethical approval was sought, a collaboration between the ethics panel, the project supervisors and researcher was needed to maximise the effectiveness of each part of the study (quantitative survey and qualitative focus groups) while ensuring that the study was ethically strong. Firstly, a collaboration between the researcher and their supervisors ensured the ethical viability of the quantitative survey, even though the subject matter of the survey concerned a sensitive topic, such as reporting sexual victimisation and perpetration experiences.

Secondly, a number of important comments were made by the ethics panel in regard to the qualitative focus group methodology while seeking ethical approval. The comments made by the ethical panel highlighted the need to expand and refine the focus group interview guide so that each focus group was conducted consistently and there was a clear process for how to deal with any issues that arise during the group discussions. Comments also offered suggestions on how to adequately provide support for participants who may become distressed from discussing such a sensitive subject, as well as how participants could safely exit the study if they became distressed or argued with another participant. Moreover, as the main researcher of this project was male, there were a number of issues that were not considered originally when looking to investigate a sensitive topic, such as sexual victimisation and perpetration. For example, that female participants may not be comfortable with talking to a male researcher, which could affect their willingness to discuss the topics in detail. Through collaborative discussion with the ethical panel and project supervisors, this feedback was enacted upon and received full approval. Engaging in these collaborative discussions made the project more ethical and highlighted to the researcher the importance of collaborating with experienced academics during a research project. For a full breakdown of the changes made from ethical feedback, please see Appendix A.

2.4 Phase 1 Data Collection - Quantitative Questionnaire

Questionnaire Sampling and Procedure

The questionnaire (Appendix B) presented to participants was uploaded onto the online survey software Qualtrics. It was then disseminated among participants by sharing an online link to the questionnaire through a number of different channels, such as social media websites, email, and online forums. The questionnaire was disseminated among participants between January 2018 and March 2019.

Participants were given a brief explanation of the questionnaire (Appendix Bi - iv) and advised to only complete it if they were aged eighteen or over in compliance with ethical permissions. Participants were then advised throughout the questionnaire about how to continue. After completing all items of the questionnaire, or after finishing early, the participants were fully debriefed and advised of relevant support services. Participants were always given the choice to exit the questionnaire at any point and agreed that their information could still be used if they finished early but still completed one of the main sections (Prevalence, consent, or risk factors). Participants also had the option to enter into a prize draw for entering the questionnaire, which they were given instructions to after they had read the de-brief page.

Sample Retention Rate

Approximately 1052 participants started the quantitative questionnaire online during the survey data collection timeframe. However, out of this number only 797 responses were considered valid as 255 responses were finished without participants completing at least one section of the survey or only completed the demographical section of the questionnaire. Moreover, out of the 797 valid responses, only 544 were retained as the remaining 253 reported their age as 31+ and the targeted sample of the study was between 18-30.

Due to a perceived low level of attrition among participants due to the length of the questionnaire, participants were notified that if they continued with the questionnaire and completed at least one of the main sections of the questionnaire and the SES-R (Prevalence, consent, or risk factors) and finished the questionnaire early then they would consent for that data to be used, even if they did not complete the other sections. This allowed a greater number of responses when testing some data sets separately. Therefore, out of the final valid cases, 544 completed the victimisation prevalence section, 470 completed the perpetration prevalence section, 366 completed the consent understanding and attitudes section and 340 completed the risk factor section, Participants were also advised that if they still wanted to withdraw this data then they could contact the researcher to do so.

The Targeted Sample

The main aim of this study is to investigate sexual assault and rape crimes among young, post eighteen adults in the UK. Therefore, the age range targeted by the questionnaire was between adults aged 18-30 years old in the UK. This age range was selected for two main reasons. Firstly, as undergraduate students are traditionally seen to be at higher risk or have been found

to report a higher number of sexual crimes (CSEW, 2018; Fisher et al., 2010) it was important to highlight the common age range of the majority of students in the UK to compare them to non-students within the same age range. As around 75% of all undergraduate students are aged between 18-30 in the UK (Higher Education Student Statistics; HESA 2018). Therefore, this age range seemed a logical choice for a classification of 'young people' within the project. Secondly, young adults in the UK tend to engage in similar behaviour, albeit with increasing responsibility, throughout their 20's (Parker & Williams, 2003). Therefore, including the age range of 18-30 would adequately cover those who may be more vulnerable to sexual crimes as a result of similar behaviours.

A number of demographical groups were targeted as part of this sample, such as students and non-students for employment, those who are single or partnered for marital status or those who are heterosexual or homosexual for sexuality. Each demographical group was chosen due to potential vulnerability of some groups that have been found in past research. For a full discussion of research into each targeted demographical group and a clarification for including it in this project please see Chapter 3.

However, even though the chosen demographical variables measured by the project are justified in their inclusion, the survey does not ask participants if their sexual assault or rape experiences occurred when their reported status for some variables may have been different. For example, if a victimisation experience occurred when they were single but are now partnered. Moreover, participants may have reported experiences that occurred during their time as a student when they would now be classed as a non-student. Failure to include these questions has meant that the analysis of these variables does not account or test for these patterns, such as if non-students reported experiences had happed to them while they were enrolled as undergraduate students. However, to reduce the potential error caused by not including these questions, only experiences reported by participants within the last 12 months of completing the questionnaire were included within the main analysis. Only including this data meant that there was less chance of participants changing their status of some variables, such as marital status or employment, during their reported sexual victimisation or perpetration experiences.

Regarding reported participant perpetration, a relatively small number of participants reported each type of sexual assault and rape type in the last 12 months and since the age of 14. However, it is noteworthy that even some participants managed to report their perpetration

in this type of project, which allowed some evidence of difference between perpetrators and non-perpetrators on beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours, as well as the gender of targeted victims and the strategies used to target their victims. This evidence can contribute towards a foundation of knowledge concerning young adult sexual crime perpetration.

Questionnaire Materials

Data for all three stages of the analysis were collected in the same questionnaire so the data could be cross analysed. The questionnaire implemented four standardised scales developed in past research. These were the Sexual Experiences Survey- Revised (Koss et al., 2007), the Sexual Consent Scale- Revised (Koss et al., 2007), McMahon and Farmer's 2011 adaptation of the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMA) and Schwartz and Dekeardsey's scale measuring negative peer advice (1997). The questionnaire also utilised factual, multiple-choice questions for participants to report their social media use, response to vignette scenarios, previous sexual history, pornography behaviours and sexting behaviours. Finally, Likert questions were developed for this study to measure hook-up behaviours, felt participant peer pressure, engagement with hard-core pornography depicting forced sex and bar/club social behaviour. More information is provided about each item, including psychometric properties, in this section:

Demographics: To measure the differences between participants who belong to different demographical groups, participants were asked to give their age, gender, sexuality, ethnicity, marital status, and employment. Students were asked further questions about which year of study they were currently in and where they lived in relation to their university/college (Appendix Bv).

SES-R: The Sexual Experience Survey – Revised measures a number of types of sexual assault victimisation or perpetration, including attempted rape/sexual assault, rape, assault by penetration and other types of sexual assault, as well as being used to measure assault in both genders (Koss et al, 2007). The survey asks a participant to identify how often (0, 1, 2, 3+ times) negative sexual experiences have happened to them/they have caused in the past 12 months and since the age of 14. For example, "Someone/ I have fondled, kissed, or rubbed up against the private areas of my body (lips, breast/chest, crotch or butt) or removed some of my clothes without my consent (*but did not attempt sexual penetration*) by threatening to physically harm me or someone close to me". As well as reporting assault behaviours, participants also have to indicate the strategy the perpetrator/they used. They were given five

options to identify these methods, which include coercion, force, threats or taking of advantage while the victim was intoxicated. The first half of the survey asks a participant if the behaviours have ever been done to them to identify victimisation, and the second half asks if they have ever done the same behaviours to an individual to identify perpetration. The participants are then asked if they have experienced/caused the behaviours more than once, which gender was party to the assault, and if they think they have ever been raped or raped someone. Percentage scores were then generated to identify the prevalence rates of each type of assault through traditional scoring methods of the scale, as well as the use of an alternative scoring method to identify the prevalence of each type of strategy for each crime including coercion, threat of force and use of force for sexual contact, attempted rape, and rape (Davis et al., 2014). Due to participants potentially experiencing multiple types of experiences the prevalence rates of victims and non-victims/perpetrators or non-perpetrators for specific types of assault or rape experiences, such as unwanted sexual contact or rape by intoxication, may be unequal, less than an expected count or exceed 100%. However, the overall victimisation/perpetration prevalence is a true reflection of how many participants reported experiencing some type of sexual abuse experience. The SES-R itself has been used in a variety of sexual assault and rape studies among college students in the US (Fisher et al., 2010) and has been found to be high in reliability and validity (Flack et al., 2016). Moreover, the SES-R used in this study identified similar sexual assault and rape victim prevalence rates among young people in the UK compared to the NUS (2019) study which measured similar experiences among young students in the UK, thus highlighting the scales validity (Appendix Bvi)

SCS-R: The SCS-R aims to identify an individual's attitudes and behaviours towards consent in five different factors. These are: a lack of perceived behavioural control, a positive attitude to gaining consent, the individual's method for communicating consent (indirect or direct), an individual's acceptance of sexual norms, and an individual's awareness and ability to discuss consent. As the vignettes were designed to test an individual's knowledge and understanding of consent and the law, the SCS-R allowed these five factors that identify a person's personal consent attitudes and behaviours to be tested, giving a well-rounded view of how people navigate consent to sexual situations. Due to the SCS-R having theoretical underpinnings in the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), past investigation has identified that it has a high level of construct and criterion validity (Humphreys and Herold, 2007).

The SCS-R consists of 37 statements divided amongst each of the five factors, such as "I have discussed sexual consent issues with a friend". Participants were asked to rate on a

seven-point scale their level of agreement to each statement (1=Strongly Disagree to 7=Strongly Agree). The score for each factor is then calculated by identifying the mean score of all statements in that factor, thus identifying an individual's consent behaviour. For example, a high/low score on communicating consent identifies whether an individual uses verbal or non-verbal means to communicate consent. Internal consistency was conducted for each sub-variable through a Cronbach's Alpha test and perceived behavioural control (α=.86), positive attitude to consent (α=.83), preferred method of consent (α=.76), acceptance of common sexual norms (α=.76) and awareness and ability to discuss consent (α=.75), were found have an acceptable or high level of reliability. (Appendix Bviii)

Vignettes: The vignettes were developed to reflect assault and rape situations that participants could come across in their lives, such as at work, with a fellow student, at a house party or on a night out. There were two vignettes created for each type of adult sexual crime as described in the Sexual Offences Act (2003), including rape, assault by penetration and sexual assault, as well as male-on-male rape. Each scenario has a male perpetrator, which does ignore those cases where a female is the perpetrator of a sexual assault or assault by perpetration (Fisher & Pina, 2017). However, male perpetrators were chosen for these vignettes because, a) they are currently part of the most commonly reported sexual assault crimes (ONS, 2017), and b) because the questionnaire would be too big if all variations of an assault or rape were included.

Each scenario introduces the perpetrator and victim of the sexual assault and describes their occupation/ enrolled course, as well as two facts including their hobbies and interests, before then going on to describe the assault/rape scenario. All information about each player in the vignette was counterbalanced to make sure that equal amounts of information were given to avoid any biases this information could produce. For example, Rempala and Bernieri (2005) found, in their study of victim blame in rape cases that the more irrelevant information provided about a plaintiff or defendant equalled a greater amount of blame attributed to that individual. Therefore, great care was taken to not provide more information about either player in each scenario. All scenarios were checked by a contact in a rape crisis centre to determine their authenticity and to make sure that they were reflective of true assault/rape scenarios, as well as making sure that each player described in the scenarios were not described with biased information.

As there were two scenarios for each type of sexual crime, each type of crime included either characteristics that are more commonly linked to sexual crimes, such as refusing to listen

when the victim said no, and a scenario which lacked these commonly accepted characteristics for assault and rape and included information that is less commonly linked to assault, such as a victim freezing and unable to reply or the perpetrator waiting for a negative but continuing after not getting one (Appendix Bvii). These variations were required to determine the difference between assault cases that vary on the amount of information available about the assault. Therefore, the vignettes vary on the amount of common assault characteristics to determine if these influence an individual's belief that consent was given in a scenario.

After reading each of the eight vignettes the participant was asked a number of questions about the scenario to determine their understanding of consent and non-consent as outlined in UK law. The first question asked the participant if they believed that the victim consented to the sexual act. This was answered "Yes" (scored as 0) or "No" (scored as 1), each participant's score was then added together to determine their level of understanding of consent (Low, medium, or high) for both the separate crime, between obvious and subtle scenarios and then overall. The participants were then asked if they believe that the perpetrator had sexually assaulted/raped the victim ("Yes" =1 or "No" =0). As all vignettes depict a sexual crime, this question determines the level of knowledge of the law/crimes that the participant has (low, medium, or high). Each question has high content validity as the questions measuring understanding are based on the criteria of a sexual assault or rape as dictated by UK Law (Sexual Offences Act, 2003).

Previous Sexual History: To test the relationship that previous sexual behaviours have with prevalence, consent and other vulnerability factors, the participants were asked if they have ever had consensual sex before (Yes or No), how many consensual sexual partners they have had and the age when they first had consensual sex. (Appendix Bix)

Bar/Club Social Behaviour: To measure the extent a participant engages in social behaviours in environments, such as bars/clubs, they were asked to indicate how often they frequented these establishments. Participants were given five options, which were "Always, Frequently, Sometimes, Rarely or Never." After data collection this variable was recoded to make sure that higher means indicated a higher indication of social events attended. (Appendix Bix)

Pornography Consumption: To measure pornography consumption, participants were asked to state whether they have watched pornography or not, and report how often they watched it (occasionally, weekly, or daily). Participants were then also asked to indicate their agreement to the statement that "hard core pornography that depicts people being forced to have sex turns

me on" on an item measured on a six-point scale (1=strongly disagree, and 6=strongly agree). After initial analysis of the "hard-core" pornography question, it was decided that it would be coded into a categorical variable with three stages, which are low agreement to the statement (including those that chose strongly disagree or disagree), medium agreement to the statement (including somewhat disagree or somewhat agree) and high agreement to the statement (including agree or strongly agree), as well as a 'chosen not to answer option'. The choice to alter this data set was made as 57 participants chose not to answer this question, which would mean that they were exempt from regression analysis. Including a categorical "hard-core" pornography question would help to reduce the cases exempt from regression analysis. (Appendix Bxi)

'Hook-up' Behaviours: To measure an individual's 'hook-up' behaviours, four questions were developed that measured the risks individuals take when looking for casual sexual partners. The questions asked an individual to agree to a statement on a six-point scale (1= strongly disagree to 6=strongly agree) to indicate how the behaviour or attitude in question relates to them as an individual. The question statements asked participants the extent they go on casual dates with different people, use social media to go on dates, go out for the sole purpose of finding a sexual partner and the extent they believe they can have sex with a previous sexual partner, all of which have been identified as possible risky behaviours (Klettke, Hallford & Mellor, 2014; Flack et al., 2016). For example, "I like to go on many casual dates with a number of men/women". (Appendix Bx)

Social Media Use: To measure an individual's use of social media sites to find a sexual partner, each participant was asked to indicate whether they had ever used a dating app, how many they have used and which sites or apps they have used to engage in such behaviour. A number of commonly used apps and websites were provided for participants to choose from, such as Tinder, Facebook, and Grindr. Participants were also given the chance to identify any other apps they used that were not on the list. To measure sexting behaviour, each participant was asked to indicate if they have ever sent explicit images, received explicit images, done both or never taken part in sexting behaviour on social media or online. (Appendix Bx)

Rape Myths: To measure a participant's rape myth acceptance an adapted version of the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMA) was chosen (McMahon & Farmer, 2011). The 22 items in the adapted version of the IRMA were the most appropriate for this project. This was because the wording of each item is in a language that a younger population would understand, as well

as concerning situations or statements that younger people in the UK can relate to. The adapted version of the IRMA also uses subtler language than older versions of the scale, thus avoids some of the disadvantages the IRMA traditionally suffers from (McMahon & Farmer, 2011; Reiling et al., 2018). An example item is, "If a girl acts like a slut, eventually she is going to get in trouble". Each item is scored on a 5-point scale, 1 being strongly agree to 5 being strongly disagree. Higher scores on the scale indicate a greater rejection of rape myths. The internal consistency and reliability of the scale was found to be high and acceptable (α=.92) (Appendix Bxiv).

Peer Pressure to have Sex: To measure how much peer pressure individuals believe they are under to have sex, eight items were developed to ascertain an individual's thoughts concerning friendship pressure to have sex, and on how they would feel if they were the only ones not in a relationship or not having sex in their friendship group. These items needed to be developed as there is currently no straight forward, reliable measure in existence that accurately measures how much pressure an individual feel to have sex from their peers/family.

Participants were asked to state their agreement to each item statement, such as "If I am single my friends constantly push me to go on dates", on a six-point scale (1=strongly disagree, 6=strongly agree). The mean score of all items was then calculated for each participant (Item 7 reversed), with a higher score indicating that an individual feels more pressure to have sex from peers. After a test of internal consistency, the 8 items were found to be highly reliable (α = .84). (Appendix Bxii)

Negative Peer Sexual Advice: To measure negative peer support a variation of Schwartz and DeKeardsey's (1997) question set were used. This question set was used as past studies investigating the effects of negative peer advice and negative peer support groups on an individual's behaviour has used this scale and it has been found to be reliable and valid (Schwartz et al., 2001). Only four of the seven questions about negative advice from peers were selected, with only those suggesting sexual abuse chosen, such as "Have any of your friends advised you of the following? If you spend money on a date the other person should have sex with you". Only these were chosen as this project is currently concerned with sexual abuse, and no other types of physical abuse. All of these questions were made to be gender neutral, as both male and female perpetrators are being investigated. Participants were asked to respond to these statements with 'yes' or 'no'. If participants had reported 'yes' to any statement, then they were classified as receiving negative advice. Participants were also be asked to indicate

how many of their friends have ever used emotional or physical abuse to have sex (0, 1-2, 3-5, 6-10 or 10+), thus identifying the size of the potential support groups. (Appendix Bxiii)

Questionnaire Analysis: Questionnaire responses were first coded into SPSS, simplifying, or transforming variables where necessary. Several chi-square and other inferential tests were conducted to determine any significant differences between the demographical data of participants their responses to the questions related to potential risk factors and consent experiences and their assault/ rape experiences. Any significant result for each assault type and strategy were then further analysed through binary logistic regression to determine which variables are more likely to predict an assault behaviour or strategy that was experienced. Binary logistic regression was chosen as it is the most appropriate type of statistical analysis when looking to determine whether a dichotomous, dependant variable can be predicted by a number of independent variables, either dichotomous or continuous (Hair Jr, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2018).

Questionnaire Material Limitations

Even though the non-standardised, newly developed questions in this questionnaire were developed through an in-depth literature review to increase construct validity, and internal consistency was checked where possible using the Cronbach's Alpha test, the reliability and validity of the developed questions were not tested in the form of a pilot study or a scale comparison exercise prior or during data collection for this project. This was not done due to the time and resource pressures of the PhD project. Consequently, not including comparative scales meant that the validity of the developed questions could not be confirmed in relation to their ability to measure the targeted variable, such as felt peer pressure to have sex or hook-up behaviours. Moreover, as a pilot test was not conducted it is unsure whether the developed questions would be consistent and reliable with future datasets if used again.

However, to resolve these limitations a number of steps could be undertaken post-study to validate each developed question. Firstly, even though no appropriate measure existed in past literature to measure certain variables, such as peer pressure to have sex or hook-up behaviours, there are some examples of associated measures for a number of the topics investigated that could be implemented as a comparison exercise. For example, the Hook-up Motives Questionnaire (HMQ), which looks to identify an individual's motive for hooking up with others (Kenney, Lac, Hummer & Labrie, 2014) could be implemented and compared to the peer pressure question set as they cover similar themes as motivations for individuals to

seek casual hook-ups. Moreover, in order to confirm that data collected through the developed questions, such as bar/club behaviour, felt peer pressure to have sex, hook-up behaviours and the hard-core pornography questions, kept a high level of reliability over time a post-study confirmatory investigation could be conducted to make sure that similar results can be found among a different sample set. Additionally, as a number of significant findings were found from these developed questions future studies looking to improve on the vulnerability models developed in this thesis will use the same questions, which can then be tested against the original dataset to confirm reliability.

2.5 Phase 2 Data Collection - Focus Groups

Sampling Method

The original data collection plan for this chapter was to run three focus groups, one all-male, one all-female and a mixed group, to determine the effect that being in a group with the same gender or where genders were mixed had on the discussion dynamic. However, due to the emergence of Covid-19 at around the same time of data collection, it was difficult to recruit younger participants, with many confirmed participants withdrawing their interest. Therefore, two focus groups were conducted, one all-female and one mixed, to gather appropriate data for analysis within the thesis timeframe. Again, 18–30-year-old participants were sought so that data that was collected as part of this study were relatable to the quantitative sample.

The participants were recruited through the use of posters, email invitations and posts on social media, which were targeted at the University of Huddersfield campus and the surrounding town. Both students and non-students were targeted due to the nature of the research question. The focus groups were conducted between the 1st of February 2020 and 8th March 2020.

Focus Group Procedure

Participants were greeted and escorted to an adequate room in the University of Huddersfield where the focus group would be conducted. At all times it was important to make sure the participants felt at ease through the use of small talk and answering any questions. Participants were fully briefed about the contents of the focus group and the expectations of joining in the focus group both during recruitment via email and before the focus group started. Participants were also asked their preference about whether they would like to join the mixed group, or pure gender groups during recruitment. Once participants were settled, they were asked to read the

participant information form and complete the consent form. Participants were also asked to confirm that they were comfortable with their conversations being recorded and anonymity and confidentiality was fully described to them. To break the ice and set some ground rules for the discussion, participants were asked as a group to create some ground rules, such as not talking over one another and to respect each other's opinions.

Once this was done the recording started and the researchers conducted the focus group using the interview guide. As this was an open discussion, the researchers prompted responses where necessary and kept the conversation flowing. Halfway through the discussion participants were given a 10-minute comfort break. Discussions lasted between 60-90 minutes and participants were informed that they could stop the recording at any time if they needed a comfort break, felt uncomfortable or needed to stop. The researchers were also given a detailed method of deescalating any heated arguments or issues that would arise during the focus group. After the discussion ended, participants were de-briefed and told what would happen next with their data. Any queries were answered, and participants were provided with a sheet of support services if they needed it in the future.

Focus Group Materials

Participant information, consent, and support: Participants were provided with a detailed information sheet that outlined the aims and topic of the focus group, what would be expected from them during the discussion and how the data would be used (Appendix Ci). Participants were also provided with a de-brief sheet at the end of the study to remind them of the aims of the study and their right to withdraw data if they change their mind (Appendix Ciii). Due to the sensitive nature of the topics discussed, participants were also provided information of support services on the information and de-brief sheet that they could access if they felt uncomfortable or distressed with any topic discussed. Participants were also provided with a consent form that they were asked to read and sign before they took part in the study (Appendix Cii).

Participant demographical information sheet: Participants were asked to provide their age, gender, sexuality, marital status, ethnicity, and information if they are a student, such as year of study and how far they live from the university (Appendix Civ).

Focus group guide: The focus group guide provided detailed information to the researcher about how to conduct the focus group. Information included was how to start the group, how to ease participants into a discussion and break the ice through a quick group task, as well as how to deal with any issues that may arise during the discussion, such as arguments or if a

participant became upset. The focus group guide also included the topic areas and potential questions that the researcher and assistants could use to keep the discussion on topic. See Appendix Cv for the full focus group guide. Due to the mixed methodological approach of this project, the topic guide and focus group structure were created around the topics and findings of the quantitative questionnaire. Therefore, the interview guide was divided into three main topic areas (Prevalence, consent, and risk factors), to adequately reflect the structure of the quantitative questionnaire, Moreover, the majority of the questions and topics included within the focus group interview guide are derived from the findings of the questionnaire, such as prevalence rates found and around the factors that were found to increase victimisation risk. Structuring the guide in this way allowed participant observations and beliefs to be collected around the quantitative findings so the quantitative findings and models could be better explained, as well as reflect a true mixed methods approach.

Focus Group Analysis: Reflexive thematic analysis was used to analyse the transcripts of the focus groups as outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006). Reflexive thematic analysis has been used as it allows themes to be developed through detailed scrutiny and is flexible enough to be applied to a multiple of theoretical and epistemological backgrounds (Braun & Clarke, 2006). It was also important to make sure that the analysis was conducted in a way that was rigorous and methodological to make sure the data and the themes derived from it were as valid as possible (Nowell, Norris, White & Moules, 2017). Firstly, the recorded data from the focus groups was transcribed into text format and then anonymised so that participants could not be identified from the rough data. The data was then read several times before undergoing coding, where labels were applied to identify key features of the data. Once these codes were collated a set of initial themes were generated to reflect the underpinning meaning of the identified concepts. Initial themes were then created and revised based on the content of the dataset and past findings from the quantitative questionnaire, as such this was a form of deductive thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). These themes were revised and edited to make sure they gave an accurate appraisal of the dataset while also answering the underlying research questions posed in this chapter. Finally, the themes were made and referred against past results and research. To see a full audit trail of the thematic analysis process, please see Appendix D.

Chapter 3 – Prevalence of Sexual Assault among a Young Sample in the UK

Firstly, the project aimed to identify the prevalence rate of reported sexual assault, coercive behaviour, and rape experiences, both reported victimisation and perpetration rates. This was done not only to compare prevalence figures with past research and highlight the reported victimisation/perpetration rate of the recorded sample, but the prevalence data allowed a further exploration of identified risk or motivational factors with reported prevalence rates to try and highlight which factors may be more associated with victimisation or perpetration experiences. Additionally, this chapter looked to compare the victimisation and perpetration experiences of different demographical sub-groups to identify which groups were more likely to report victimisation/perpetration experiences. This helped highlight any sub-groups which may be seen as the 'vulnerable, attractive victim' or be more likely to perpetrate sexual crimes as stated by the RAT. Moreover, this chapter looked to identify the extent that being associated in these sub-groups were likely to predict victimisation. Therefore, the demographical groups included in this study were age, gender, sexuality, marital status, ethnicity, and employment, which was included to compare students and non-student post 18 young people and their experiences, which has been rarely done in research in the UK.

3.1 Police Recorded Statistics and National Surveys

Sexual assault and rape are crimes that have a continually increasing prevalence rate in the United Kingdom (UK). In England and Wales, official police figures recorded by the Office of National Statistics (ONS) show that between April 2016 and March 2017 there were 121,187 recorded sexual offences, with 41,186 recorded rapes and 80,001 other sexual offences (ONS, 2017). The number of sexual crimes also seem to be increasing by year, as between April 2015 and March 2016 there were 106,111 police recorded sexual offences with 35,704 recorded rapes and 70,407 other recorded sexual offences, showing an increase of 14% between the two time periods. However, instead of crime rates going up it is widely believed that sexual offences are vastly unreported and the increase in crime figures can be accounted for by the increased number of victims reporting their crimes (ONS, 2017). The Home Office in 2013 published a report estimating that between 430,000-517,000 sexual offences occur every year, with around 404,000 female victims and 72,000 male victims. Therefore, when compared with police recorded statistics the report suggests that between 75-80% of sexual crimes go unreported every year. Furthermore, Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary and Fire and Rescue Services (HMICFRS) in 2014 published their findings of reported crime rates that suggested

26% of all sexual offences that are being reported to the police were failing to be recorded correctly. The outcome of these reports outlines the inaccuracies of police recorded statistics and the need to correctly identify the prevalence rates of sexual crimes in both England and Wales and the UK in general.

A potentially more accurate measure of sexual crime in England and Wales can be found in the Crime Survey of England and Wales (CSEW). In 2018 the CSEW found that out of a sample of 34,715 adults (aged 16-59), 2.7% had reported completed and attempted sexual assault (including rape) in the past year. Furthermore, out of 16,180 men 1.2% had reported victimisation and 4.3% of women had reported victimisation in the past year out of the 18,535 women surveyed (CSEW, 2018). In a more detailed investigation into sexual offences the CSEW in 2017 conducted a detailed survey of 35,420 adults varying on different types of demographics, such as age, employment, ethnicity, education, sex, location, and marital status. In summary, the results of the survey indicate that young adults (16-24), females, students, those who are single and those who are mixed race had a higher report rate of victimisation than any other sub-group, thus suggesting a higher vulnerability rate than the other sub-groups for the past year (CSEW, 2017). The results of the survey provide a detailed insight into attempted and completed sexual assault and rape prevalence figures among several different demographics within England and Wales. However, one major issue with the survey is that it only reports the victimisation rates as a descriptive percentage and does not look to expand on our understanding of victimisation by demographic through further statistical testing. Another issue with the survey is that it fails to explore the deeper relationship between different demographical groups and only concentrates on the difference of sex between demographics. For example, the difference between male and female students without expanding to include other demographics (i.e., single/partnered male/female students). Furthermore, even though the survey differentiates between attempted/completed rape and some different types of sexual offences, as well as some different strategies used by perpetrators in the assault, it fails to explore the relationship between these strategies by demographic. Finally, the CSEW only collects data from already reported incidents or from those who are willing to report their experiences, which will mean the CSEW will underestimate prevalence figures as it will not account for incidents where an individual may not wish or be unable to report their experiences. Therefore, even though the CSEW is a good exploration of sexual offence prevalence data in England and Wales, a more detailed, comprehensive investigation into true prevalence rates and the relationship of factors is needed to fully understand those who have a greater

vulnerability to sexual assault and rape, which could ultimately lead to improving strategies to help reduce these crimes.

Similarly, exploring the same demographics and strategies relating to sexual assault perpetration would provide a more in-depth picture of who is more likely to perpetrate sexual assault and give us a greater insight into the strategies they use during their crimes. A more detailed discussion of victimisation and perpetration research is provided in this chapter.

3.2 Academic Research Prevalence Figures

Victimisation

In relation to other countries, such as the United States (US), the UK has a smaller amount of academic research into the prevalence rates of sexual assault. One of these pieces of research was carried out by the National Union of Students (NUS) in 2010, who conducted a survey to ascertain the victimisation rates of sexual harassment and assault among a sample of university students. The results of the survey indicated that a large number of students had experienced some form of verbal or non-verbal harassment (68%), unwanted kissing or touching etc. (16%), and/or serious sexual assault including rape (7%). One of the main failings of this study is that it did not investigate male victims of assault and rape. Recent research indicates that young males are also the victims of unwanted sexual violence (Coxell & King, 2010; Davies, 2000; Elliott, Mok & Briere, 2004; Mezey & King, 1989; Tewksbury, 2007; Walker et al., 2005) and they can experience negative consequences as a result of this (Carpenter, 2009). However, in 2019 the NUS conducted a further investigation into sexual harassment, assault, and rape among student populations in the UK, comparing both male and female victims (NUS, 2019). Results from this study showed even higher levels of assault and rape prevalence among young, student samples, with 33% of participants reporting that they had been groped sexually without their consent and 14% had experienced unwanted vaginal, anal, or oral sex without their consent, although female participants still reported a higher level of victimisation than male participants. One major issue with these studies is that they fail to include non-student samples in their investigations. By failing to compare prevalence figures of both populations it is difficult to determine whether students are particularly vulnerable to sexual violence, or if other factors may contribute to the high prevalence rate when compared to a non-student sample. As the CSEW (2017) suggests that young people (16-24) are particularly vulnerable to sexual crimes, it would be beneficial to determine whether it is specifically students who have a greater vulnerability to sexual victimisation or if non-students are also at risk. Despite this, the high

prevalence rate of sexual crime victimisation among students is further highlighted through additional studies (Camp, Sherlock-Smith & Davies, 2018; NUS, 2014; The Student Room, 2018). For example, the University of Manchester's Student Union (2017) found in their survey of students in Manchester that 1 in 2 respondents (8 out of 10 females and 1 out of 5 males) reported sexual victimisation. Even though these other pieces of research exclusively focus on student groups and student victimisation and therefore do not identify the difference between student and non-student populations, the high sexual violence prevalence rate among young, post 18 students in the UK can be clearly seen.

Compared to the UK, the US has produced a greater amount of research to improve our understanding of sexual assault and rape crimes. Fisher et al, (2010) in a review of US sexual offence college studies estimate that around 20% of female students become victims of some sort of sexual harassment during their time at college. Further investigations in US colleges indicate similar percentages of victimisation (20-25%) for female students (Carey, Durney, Shepardson & Carey, 2015; Clodfelter, Turner, Hartman & Khuns, 2010; Conley, Overstreet, Hawn, Kendler, Dick & Amstadter, 2017; Mellins et al, 2017), although some studies have found victimisation rates to be lower for female students, such as 5.2% (Coulter & Rankin, 2017), or higher, such as 34% (Palmer, McMahon, Rounsaville & Ball, 2010). Serious sexual assault, such as attempted or completed rape, has also been found to fluctuate between female college samples, varying from 3.9% (Porter & Williams, 2011) to 24.8% (Mellins et al, 2017). Moreover, studies investigating male student victims of sexual assault in the US identify prevalence figures as anything between 3.8% (Elliott et al, 2004) to 31% (Palmer et al, 2010), and male serious sexual assault (rape) has been found to fluctuate from anything between 3.2 – 22% (Tewksbury, 2017). Fluctuations between these figures could be explained using different sexual assault and rape measures used to ascertain sexual assault and rape prevalence, thus highlighting the need for a more standardized measure of assault.

Similar to UK research, these studies suggest that sexual crimes are prevalent among students who attend college/university and suggest a higher victimisation level than reported in official statistic or government led surveys (Fisher et al., 2010). However, studies conducted in the US that look at sexual assault prevalence among the general population have found similar prevalence findings than those exclusively conducted in college/university settings (Elliot et al, 2004; Kilpatrick, Resnick, Ruggiero, Conoscenti & McCauley, 2007). Moreover, Buddie and Testa (2005) in their study comparing student and non-student females aged 18-30 found that college did not seem to be a particularly risky environment for sexual aggression

and instead suggested that risk factors, such as a high number of sexual partners and drinking habits, led to an increased chance of victimisation. These results would suggest that young people who may not choose to enter university, or have left, may be just as vulnerable to sexual harassment and assault than those who do become students. As the majority of research into sexual assault and rape victimisation amongst young people in the UK is conducted with university students, further research is needed to expand our understanding of the victimisation of non-students of the same age.

Overall, academic research in the UK provides evidence that sexual crimes are highly prevalent among students in university (Camp et al, 2018; University of Manchester's Student Union, 2017; NUS, 2010, 2014, 2019). However, very little research has been conducted on the sexual victimisation of young people that are not or choose not to go to university. Therefore, further investigation is needed to determine the similarities and differences of student and non-student populations to identify any vulnerability similarities and differences that may be present.

Perpetration

To provide a detailed, balanced view of sexual assault among a young population in the UK, this project aimed to investigate young perpetrators of sexual assault and rape. As far as the author is aware, there are very few studies in the UK that look to explore the characteristics and behaviours of young perpetrators of sexual assault/rape and the factors that can motivate perpetrators to offend, with the majority of current studies focusing on student victimisation rates, the role of 'lad culture' in sexual victimisation amongst university students (NUS, 2014; Phipps & Young, 2015) and the use of bystander intervention in reducing sexual crimes (Fenton, Mott, McCartan & Rumney, 2016). Therefore, an exploratory study is needed in regard to investigating the characteristics of young sexual assault and rape perpetrators.

However, there has been a greater amount of research in other countries, such as the US, Nigeria (Olaleye & Ajuwon, 2012) and South Africa (Jewkes et al, 2006), that looks to explore perpetration of sexual assault and rape amongst younger populations and the differences between perpetrators and non-perpetrators. Studies in the US that have investigated perpetration prevalence in a number of college samples suggest that self-reported perpetration figures can be anywhere between 2.1% (Walsh et al, 2019) and 92% (Thompson & Cracco, 2008). Furthermore, college students have reported perpetrating specific types of assault in a number of studies. These behaviours include sexual contact behaviours, such as unwanted

groping and kissing etc. (Fisher et al., 2010; Loh, Gidycz, Lobo & Luthra, 2005; Zawacki, Abbey, Buck, McAuslan & Clinton-Sherrod, 2003), sexually coercive behaviours, such as threatening or convincing victims to have sex (Fisher et al., 2010; Sorenson, Joshi & Sivitz, 2013), attempted rape (Loh et al., 2005; Zawacki et al., 2003) and completed rape (Fisher et al., 2010; Loh et al., 2005; Zawacki et al., 2003). A study in Nigeria by Olaleye and Ajuwon in 2012 found that 22.4% of the 594 students they surveyed reported having perpetrated one form of non-consensual behaviour and Jewkes et al. (2006) found out of 1370 men in South Africa, that 20.9% of all participants had reported committing rape of a partner or ex-partner. The variation shown between these studies can be explained through the use of different sexual assault perpetration measures. For example, studies measuring college samples that use the Sexual Experiences Survey (SES, Koss & Oros, 1982) suggest that around 12.5% to 14.2% of participant's report perpetration, whereas those that use the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS) report around 26-29% of perpetration prevalence (Walsh et al., 2019). In a community, non-student sample, Abbey, Parkhill, Clinton-Sherrod and Zawacki (2007) found that around 15% of the 163 non-student males (aged 18-49) had reported committing the most serious types of sexual assault, with 24.5% using verbal coercion and 24.5% committing attempted or completed rape.

Overall, studies in the US and other countries suggest that sexual assault and rape perpetration prevalence is high amongst college and non-college samples. Discrepancies between exact perpetration figures could be explained through the different measurement techniques employed by different researchers (Walsh et al., 2019). However, in a follow up study of sexual assault and rape perpetration amongst a college sample, Walsh et al. (2019) found a very low perpetration prevalence rate, with only 2.1% of participants (3.3% male, 1.4% female) reporting that they have committed previous sexual assault/rape. The authors suggest that the reason for this difference between their results and previous studies is not due to a decrease in perpetration, but instead due to cultural changes towards sexual crimes. They elaborate by describing that as studies who report a higher prevalence rate were conducted 10 years prior to their investigation, a negative shift in societal attitudes towards perpetrators of sexual crimes could prevent perpetrators self-reporting their behaviours, even though the surveys were anonymous, due to social desirability biases (Walsh et al., 2019). If this conclusion is correct, then our current measures of sexual assault perpetration may no longer be accurate.

3.3 Vulnerable Sub-groups

So far, this chapter has discussed general prevalence figures across a number of countries and has outlined how research suggests that sexual assault and rape victimisation and perpetration prevalence figures are greater than reflected in police recorded statistics. However, investigations into the victims and perpetrators of sexual assault have identified certain sub-groups that are more likely to become victims or perpetrate sexual crimes. This section of the chapter will discuss these groups.

Age

As previously stated, the CSEW (2017) identified that younger age groups (16-24) had a higher reported victimisation rate than other age groups. Moreover, previous research has identified that younger age groups have a greater vulnerability to sexual crimes, usually involving male offenders with young, female victims (Felson, Cundiff & Painter-Davis, 2012; Greathouse, Saunders, Matthews, Keller & Miller, 2015). However, young males have also been found to have a higher victimisation rate compared to older men (CSEW, 2017). The RAT suggests that the routine activities young people engage in increases their chances of encountering potential offenders and increase their risk of sexual victimisation (Felson & Cohen, 1980). For example, younger people (aged 12+) tend to socialise more at night with friends and ingest large amounts of alcohol, which has been found to be positively associated with sexual assault and rape victimisation (Lorenz & Ullman, 2016).

Alternatively, Felson and Cundiff (2014) argue that younger people have a disproportionate number of sexual crimes committed against them due to their innate attractiveness and high levels of sexual appeal. In their analysis of sexual assault and rape cases the authors found that offenders were significantly more likely to target younger victims, regardless of sex, thus highlighting the vulnerability of younger people to victimisation. Moreover, research has indicated that younger victims are more likely to experience sexual assault or rape in concurrence with other crimes compared to older victims. For example, younger female victims of homicide are more likely to be raped or sexually assaulted during their attack, whereas older victims are more likely to suffer from theft (Shackelford, 2002). A conclusion from these findings is that younger people have a higher rate of vulnerability to sexual crimes as a result of their attractiveness and sexual appeal.

Regarding perpetration, male offenders tend to be older than their victims, although this pattern is not seen with female perpetrators of sexual crimes (Felson & Cundiff, 2014). Felson

et al (2012) expand on Merton's blocked opportunity theory, where people are likely to turn to crime when legitimate methods of obtaining their goals are blocked, to explain why older, male offenders of sexual assault or rape target younger victims in prison. They argue that older men in prisons are not able to obtain sexual partners through consensual means due to their unattractiveness to others. Therefore, they resort to illegal means to gain sexual release with younger inmates that are seen to be a viable alternative to women. Felson and Cundiff (2014) argue that this theory can be applied to male perpetrators outside of a prison setting. They suggest that men tend to prefer younger, attractive sexual partners, who older men have difficulty attracting with legitimate means, thus they resort to illegitimate options. Even though this theory offers a good insight into why older males may resort to sexual assault and rape it fails to account for younger perpetrators of this crime, meaning that further exploration is needed to understand the motivation of young perpetrators.

Identified Sex and Gender

Overall, academic, and governmental publications show that a large proportion of victims of sexual assault and rape are female, with the majority of cases involving male offenders (Conley et al., 2017; CSEW, 2017; Elliot et al., 2004; Fisher & Cullen., 2000; Kimmerling, Rellihi, Kelly, Judson & Learman, 2002; NUS, 2019; ONS, 2017). However, recently, male victims of sexual assault and rape have received more attention in academic work, although it is thought to be 20 years behind research into female victimisation (Chapleau, Oswald & Russell, 2008; Davies, Gilston & Rogers, 2012; Sleath & Bull, 2010). It is also widely believed that male victim sexual crimes are underreported with many victims failing to come forward to support services (Coxell & King, 2010; Davies, 2000; Elliot et al., 2004; Pearson & Barker, 2019; Tewksbury, 2007). Male victims are generally seen to fail to report their experiences for several reasons, including; the fear of negative reactions or disbelief from the authorities (Kassing Beesley & Frey, 2005; Scarce, 2008), fear of failing to live up to traditional gender values and stereotypes about masculinity (Kassing et al., 2005; Walker et al., 2005), fear of being labelled a 'weak' victim and avoiding the shame, guilt and embarrassment a victim feels after their assault (Cohn et al., 2012; Sable, Danis, Mauzy & Gallagher, 2006). For example, some victims of Reynhard Sinaga, a prolific rape offender who drugged and lured young men to his flat in Manchester to rape them until he was caught in 2017, refused to engage in the court process when approached by police to protect their psychological health and avoid negative labels associated with their victimisation (De Simone, 2020). Alternatively, males have been found to report victimisation if they can provide evidence that they lived up to traditional masculine

standards, such as injuries from fighting back (Javaid, 2015). Dispelling traditional, masculine stereotypes and expectations may therefore be vital to help male victims come forward and seek support.

Some evidence also suggests that individuals who identify as a non-traditional gender (e.g., non-binary or A-sexual etc.) may also have higher vulnerability to victimisation (Coulter Mair, Miller, Blosnich, Matthews & McCauly, 2017). However, as studies including individuals who identify as non-traditional genders generally include small samples the effects found have the potential to be incorrect. Further research is needed with larger sample sizes to determine the vulnerability of these groups.

As previously discussed, research has identified that men are statistically more likely to perpetrate sexual crimes (Koss, Gidycz & Wisniewski, 1987; Loh et al., 2005). However, female perpetrated sexual crimes do occur and have recently received a greater amount of academic attention (Budd, Bierie & Williams, 2015; Fisher & Pina, 2012; Greathouse et al., 2015). In a study of 656 college students in the US, Struckman-Johnson, Struckman-Johnson, and Anderson (2003) found that around 27% of recorded female students in their sample had used coercion to commit sexual assault against male students. However, apart from studies conducted in college/university settings, one issue with investigating female perpetrators is that it is difficult to generalise characteristics of the perpetrators, as samples normally include a mix of individuals who have targeted adults or children. Therefore, it is difficult to determine whether specific characteristics are exclusive to individuals who target children, adult women, or adult males (Greathouse et al., 2015). Alternatively, in an analysis of female sexual offender cases, Budd et al (2015) identified that solo female perpetrators were more likely to target adult, male victims, whereas those that offended in a group or with a male sexual offender tended to target women or children. Moreover, samples of self-reported female perpetrators in studies are small and therefore their findings may not be applicable to the wider population. One possible explanation for low response rates in research is due to the low report rates of victims of sexual assault or rape, specifically if the victim is male and assaulted by a female perpetrator. As traditional masculine norms and stereotypes typically and incorrectly focus on beliefs that a man cannot be assaulted or raped by a woman, (Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992), then men who are assaulted by a female may choose not to come forward (Fisher & Pina, 2012). Further investigation is needed to determine the relatability of these findings to the prevalence rate of female perpetrators against young adults to help inform prevention programs.

Sexuality

Studies that have included sexuality as a demographic in their investigations suggest that those who identify as homosexual or bisexual tend to have a greater vulnerability of sexual crime victimisation (Coulter et al., 2017; Coulter & Rankin, 2017; Kimerling et al., 2002). For example, in their investigation of sexual assault prevalence amongst 88,975 students in the US, Coulter et al. (2017) found that 15.7% of bisexual and 9.8% of gay/lesbian students reported victimisation compared to 6.4% of heterosexual students. Moreover, gay, male students reported a higher rate of victimisation than female, lesbian students. These results, and similar findings from non-college samples (Kimerling et al., 2002), reinforce the argument that minority sexualities may be more at risk of sexual crimes. Moreover, recent research conducted in the UK on university student groups, suggest that the LGBT+ community are particularly at risk to sexual harassment, assault, and rape victimisation (NUS, 2019). An explanation of why these minorities is particularly vulnerable include the extra risk factors that LGBTQ+ individuals may have to take to find an eligible partner (Johnson, Matthews & Napper, 2016), such as through the use of gay dating apps. Young, newly revealed gay or bisexual men have also been found to be at risk due to their inexperience of interacting with the gay/bisexual lifestyle. As such, they can be at further risk of assault from older, more experienced gay men (Braun, Terry, Gavey & Fenaughty, 2009; Mutchler, 2000). Furthermore, homosexual/bisexual individuals may feel a higher pressure to engage in unwanted sexual activities due to feelings of guilt perpetuated by coercive perpetrators (Braun et al., 2009). However, one issue with studies that identify the greater vulnerability of sexual minorities is that they suffer from an imbalance of samples between heterosexual and non-heterosexual participants (Brubaker, Keegan, Guadalupe-Diaz & Beasley, 2017). For example, Coulter et al. (2017) had a sample of 4,188 heterosexual participants compared to 811 non-heterosexual participants in a comparison of victim prevalence rates. Even though this can be seen as reflective of the general population (ONS, 2017), it is not known if the effects found are due to an over representation of heterosexual participants. Moreover, further investigation is needed to identify the difference between young homosexual/bisexual student and non-student populations to determine the differences of risk between the groups.

Regarding sexual assault crimes, the majority of perpetrators tend to be heterosexual (Felson & Cundiff, 2014; Loh, et al., 2005). However, Felson and Cundiff (2014) suggest that this is due to heterosexuality being the dominant sexuality in society, therefore there will naturally be a higher number of heterosexual perpetrators. Instead, they suggest that the

percentage of homosexual offenders are similar to the percentage of heterosexual offenders if the populations were equal. However, as very few studies look to identify the sexuality of sexual assault and rape perpetrators and how this relates to the victims they choose, further investigation is needed.

Ethnicity

The vulnerability of ethnic minorities in Caucasian majority countries towards sexual assault and rape has also received academic attention. In the UK, the CSEW (2017) identified that mixed ethnic respondents (e.g., White and Black African/Caribbean) had a higher victimisation response rate than any other ethnicity in their sample. However, results from academic studies are inconsistent in regard to ethnic vulnerability. For example, Conley et al (2017) found in their study of sexual assault predictors amongst college students that those who identified as Black or Asian had a decreased chance of sexual assault victimisation, whereas Yoon, Stiller Funk and Kropf (2010) found that Black students were more likely to experience sexual assault and were also more likely to be repeatedly harassed than other ethnicities. Current academic understanding provides two main reasons for these inconsistencies. Firstly, the vast majority of studies that include ethnicity as a factor when investigating sexual crime victimisation tend to obtain small, unrepresentative samples of ethnic minorities and instead include an overrepresentation of Caucasian participants (Brubaker et al., 2017; de Heer & Jones, 2017). Secondly, sexual assault and rape vulnerability may only be prevalent among specific ethnic minorities when they are co-occurring with other factors. For example, Coulter et al. (2017) found in their sample that those who reported themselves as Black transgendered were more likely to become victims than those that reported as White transgender. However, due to the low response rates of those who are not White/Caucasian it is difficult to see if these trends are consistent amongst a whole population. Future studies that aim to gather a larger sample of ethnically diverse participants and look at the relationship between these groups and other factors, such as gender and sexuality etc., are needed.

Marital Status

Previous studies suggest that single, divorced, and separated women are more at risk of sexual assault and rape victimisation than those who are married or widowed (Rennison, DeKeseredy & Dragiewicz, 2013; Siddique, 2016). Through a combination of lifestyle-exposure theory and RAT, Siddique (2016) suggests that single, divorced, and separated women have a higher vulnerability rate as they are more likely to engage in behaviours that put them at risk of

meeting a potential perpetrator. Moreover, as single, divorced, or separated women are less likely to have the same lifestyle and behavioural constraints as partnered or married women, such as the expectation to spend more leisure time with their family or partner, they have the opportunity to engage in behaviours that put them at higher risk of victimisation (Siddique, 2016). In regard to the student population, a young student without a partner and separated from the support of their family may feel pressured to engage or be subjected to behaviours that increase their risk of sexual victimisation by their peers, such as attending parties where 'hooking up' is expected (Franklin & Menaker, 2016). Knowledge about the relationship between marital status, sexual assault/rape victimisation and other risk factors are therefore important to understand how being single can increase risk of sexual crime victimisation. Understanding this relationship will allow the development of awareness programs to educate those with a higher vulnerability to reduce their chance of victimisation.

Employment

Overall, as previously mentioned, research and national surveys suggest that college and university students may be more at risk to sexual assault and rape than any other post 18 occupation for young people (CSEW, 2017; Fisher et al., 2010). It is generally believed that this is due to high-risk behaviours and factors that students are subjected to during their life on campus. These factors can include high levels of drinking and socialising (Abbey et al., 2007; Lorenz & Ullman, 2016), a high number of consensual sexual partners (Franklin & Menaker, 2016), peer pressure to have sex (Franklin, 2010) and proximity to a higher number of potential perpetrators (Fisher & Cullen., 2000). In regard to student perpetrators, alcohol use (Abbey et al., 2007), social interactions (Franklin & Menaker, 2016), and negative/hostile beliefs about women (Loh et al., 2005) have been found to predict perpetration. Furthermore, in the UK the identification of the 'lad culture' that actively encourages and perpetuates traditional masculine ideals, rape myths and expectations of males to have sex has been found to be prevalent among student populations (Phipps & Young, 2015). These factors have the detrimental impact of sexualising females for student social advertisements (Phipps & Young, 2015) and leading to some sexual assault experiences among students to be played down (Phipps, Ringrose, Renold & Jackson, 2019). Furthermore, the perpetuation of these ideals in fraternities in the US has been found to actively encourage males to coerce or force sex on female students (Franklin & Menaker, 2016).

However, even though students are generally thought to be at higher risk of sexual crime victimisation, sexual harassment, assault and rape, high rates of these crimes can also be found among those who choose not to go to university (UCU, 2016). Specifically, when looking at a young sample of 18-30-year-old females, Buddie & Testa (2005) found no difference between the victimisation rates of student and non-student samples. Instead, they suggest that young people in general are subjected to high risk factors due to high-risk behaviours that the majority of young people engage in. As this piece of research is one of the only investigations that directly compare student and non-student young people, more exploration is needed to identify the similarities and differences between the two populations to better inform sexual assault/rape awareness strategies.

3.4 Strategies Used by Perpetrators of Sexual Assault

To identify the vulnerability of sexual assault and rape amongst vulnerable sub-groups it is also beneficial to identify the strategies that perpetrators can use to obtain unwanted sex from victims, and which populations may be more vulnerable to these strategies and why.

An act of sexual assault or rape through intoxication refers to the victim either becoming drugged intentionally by a perpetrator, or if the victim is incapacitated through voluntary drug or alcohol use and a perpetrator takes advantage of this incapacitation to assault or rape the victim (Abbey et al., 2007). Kilpatrick et al (2007), found in their large survey of assault victims in the US that assault and rape by intoxication was experienced by a large number of individuals, although a higher number of people were victimised by voluntary incapacitation (e.g., alcohol or recreational drug use) than those who were drugged intentionally by a perpetrator. Moreover, Ingemann-Hansen, Sabroe, Brink, Knudson, and Charles (2009) found that 43% of victims in their study had consumed at least one unit of alcohol before their assault/rape experience. As alcohol and recreational drugs alter an individual's perceptions, impairs decision making processes and decreases reaction times, an individual who is intoxicated could be at risk from assault by potential perpetrators, especially if the victim becomes intoxicated in situations where they are more likely to meet potential perpetrators (Lorenz & Ullman, 2016). Identifying sub-groups who are more at risk of victimisation through intoxication will therefore help to inform awareness strategies to reduce future victimisation.

Another strategy a perpetrator can use is by verbally coercing their victims into unwanted sexual intercourse without the use of force. A victim who is coerced into unwanted

sexual intercourse can suffer insults or other forms of emotional abuse by the perpetrator to force them into acts they do not want to do (Brown, Testa & Messan-Moore, 2009). For example, a perpetrator may insult a victim's appearance or self-worth to convince them that only the perpetrator would ever care for them or want to be with them in a sexual relationship. In a study of the victimisation experiences of college women in the US, Messan-Moore, Coates, Gaffey and Johnson (2008) found that around 11.7% of participants had been victims of unwanted sexual intercourse via verbal coercion. However, coercion prevalence has been found to vary throughout past research. For example, Snead and Babcock (2019) found that coercion prevalence could be reported as anything between 3% and 59% amongst reported victims in past studies. Moreover, past research suggests that verbal coercion is more likely to occur among people who are in intimate relationships where a perpetrator will coerce their partner into unwanted sexual acts multiple times, normally without the victim realising that they are being abused (Brown et al., 2009; Snead & Babcock, 2019).

Finally, perpetrators can assault or rape their victims through the use of or threat of physical force. The term force can be defined as any physical act that aims to subdue the victim, such as kicking, punching, or forcibly holding the victim down during sexual assault or rape. In a systematic review of papers concerning campus sexual assault in the US between 2000 to 2015, Fedina, Holmes and Backes (2016) report that the studies they reviewed reported a relatively low number of participants who reported rape or assault through the use or threat of physical force (0.2% – 3%) compared to coercion or intoxication. These findings suggest that perpetrators may be less likely to use force to assault their victim's contrary to traditional expectations of assault and rape, and instead use more coercive strategies or those involving drugs or alcohol. However, as this study only looked at campus sexual assault this pattern of behaviour may only be significant to student populations. Moreover, even though the number of reported victims of unwanted sexual intercourse is lower for the use or threat of force strategy, it is still important to identify who may be more vulnerable to assault by force to help inform victimisation awareness strategies and perpetrator prevention strategies.

3.5 Measuring Sexual Assault and Rape Victimisation and Perpetration

The methods that academic studies utilise to identify prevalence rates of sexual assault and rape vary. Some studies use previously collected, second-hand data from general surveys conducted across large populations, such as the NUS survey (2010, 2014, 2019) and a number of campus climate surveys that have been conducted in the US (e.g., Fedina et al., 2016).

However, these tend to suffer from a lack of control of what data the researchers collect, which can limit the scope of their findings. Alternatively, a number of studies utilise primary data collection methods to obtain data concerning sexual crime victimisation and perpetration, either through direct questioning about an individual's experiences (Coulter & Rankin, 2017; Clodfelter et al., 2010) or through a number of pre-existing scales. For example, the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ; Fitzgerald, Magley, Drasgow & Waldo, 1999).

However, the measure of prevalence that was used in this project was the Sexual Experiences Survey Revised (SES-R; Koss et al., 2007). Originally developed in 1982 by Koss and Oros and later revised by Koss et al (1987) the Sexual Experience survey was developed to assess both victimisation and perpetration of unwanted sexual acts during rape. However, the original survey suffered from a number of weaknesses, such as issues with definitions of rape and sexual acts, heterosexual bias by only counting crimes involving a man and a woman and the inadequate measures of alcohol-related rape and sexual coercion experiences. Therefore, Koss and colleagues (Koss et al., 2007) revised the SES into the SES-R to create a more reliable measure with a greater validity when measuring the prevalence of assault rates. The SES-R was chosen for this project as it allows both victimisation and perpetration to be recorded accurately and allows participant responses to be coded and analysed quickly (Fisher et al., 2010). Moreover, the scale offers clear definitions of individual sexual crimes and the strategies that perpetrators use to commit them that can also be easily compared to legal definitions. Finally, the scale has been used in a wide variety of studies that have shown to be high in reliability (Flack et al., 2016).

3.6 *Chapter Aim and Objectives*

The aim of this chapter is to identify the prevalence of sexual assault/rape victimisation and perpetration amongst a sample of 18-30-year-old participants. This has been done to test findings found in previous research, determine whether young students do in fact have a higher vulnerability to these crimes than non-students and to identify the predictability of demographical characteristics in differentiating between victims and non-victims.

3.6.1 Chapter objectives:

1. Use the SES-R to identify the prevalence rates of victimisation and perpetration for sexual assault/contact, attempted rape, and rape crimes amongst a sample of young 18-30 participants.
2. Identify the prevalence of strategies used to perpetrate these experiences.

3. Compare prevalence figures between students and non-students to determine whether students do have a greater vulnerability of victimisation.
4. Identify vulnerable sub-groups through the comparison of participant demographics.
5. Conduct a number of regression analyses to identify the predictability of demographical characteristics in differentiating between victims and non-victims of each type of victimisation category.

Through the exploration of previous literature, a number of predications can be made in relation to prevalence rates of sexual assault and rape perpetration or victimisation amongst a young sample.

3.6.2 Chapter Hypotheses:

1. Undergraduate student samples will have a higher victimisation prevalence rate in all assault victimisation where they were intoxicated, compared to non-student samples and other student samples.
2. Younger participants will be significantly more likely to experience assault victimisation than older participants.
3. Older participants will be significantly more likely to perpetrate sexual assault or rape than younger participants
4. Male participants will be significantly less likely to report assault experiences than female participants.
5. Male participants will be significantly more likely to perpetrate sexual assault or rape than females.
6. Homosexual and Bisexual participants will be significantly more likely to experience assault experiences than heterosexual participants.
7. There will be a significant difference between participant ethnicity and assault experiences.
8. Married participants will be significantly less likely to experience overall victimisation and some forms of sexual assault and rape types than single or partnered participants.

3.7 Chapter 3 Method

Sample

Victimisation

Overall, 544 participants completed the victimisation measure of this questionnaire. Participant age varied between 18-30 years of age (M= 22.82, SD=3.60). Participants were limited to this age range as around 75% of all students in the UK are within this age bracket (Higher Education Student Statistics; HESA 2018), thus, to fully compare student and non-student populations this age range was deemed the most appropriate. In regard to age category, 228 participants were aged between 18-21, 187 were aged between 22-25 and 129 were aged between 25-30. There was a greater number of female participants (N=423) compared to male participants (N=114), which was expected. Six participants recorded their gender as 'other' (Transgendered=3, A gendered=3). Participants reported their sexuality as heterosexual (N=425), homosexual (N=26), bisexual (N=80), fluid (N=1), Asexual (N=2), pansexual (N=6), demi sexual (N=1) and not sure (N=3). The vast majority of participants were single/never been married (52.1%; N=283), with the remainder of participants reporting that they were partnered/never been married (38.3%, N=208), married/in a domestic partnership (8.8%; N=48), separated (0.4%; N=2) and divorced (0.4%; N=2).

Regarding employment, 30.5% of participants were Employed (N=166), 2.9% were unemployed (N=16), 0.2% reported as being in an apprenticeship (N=1), 36.8% reported themselves as undergraduate students (N=200), 18.4% as postgraduate students (N=100) and 11.2% were reported as 'other' students (N=61). There were 47.6% of students in the first year (N=169), 15.8% in the second year (N=56), 15.2% in the third year (N=54) and 21.4% in the fourth year or above (N=76). When university student participants reported their living locations, 34.5% reported as living in the area of the university (122), 37% reported that they lived within walking distance to the university (N=131) and 28.5% reported as living further afield (N=101).

For ethnicity, as with previous studies in western countries the majority of participants reported as White English/Scottish/Northern Irish (N=411, 75.8%). As there was a generally low report rate for other ethnicities the categories were combined if they included less than 15 participants to aid analysis where possible. Those ethnicities that were not similar but had a low participation rate were placed in the 'other' category to denote a minority ethnicity. The other categories were White European/ Southern Irish (N=38, 7%), White Asian (N=16, 3%),

Black African/ Caribbean (N=12, 2.2%), White and Black African/ Caribbean (N=17, 8.9%) and Other (N=48, 8.9%). Ethnicities in the 'Other' Category included Indian (N=8), Pakistani (N=12), Bangladeshi (N=7), Chinese (N=9), Portuguese (N=1), White American (N=1), Nepalese (N=2), Persian and Turkish (N=5), Greek (N=1), Malay (N=2) and Vietnamese (N=1).

Perpetration

Overall, 470 participants completed the perpetration part of the SES-R questionnaire. Participant age again varied between 18-30 (M= 22.82, SD=3.60). There were 194 participants aged 18-21, 162 aged between 22-25 and 114 aged between 25-30. Females had the highest number of respondents (N=380), with an expected lesser number of males (N=90). Six participants recorded their gender as 'other' (Transgendered=3, a gendered=2). Participants reported their sexuality as heterosexual (N=358), homosexual (N=24), bisexual (N=76), fluid (N=1), Asexual (N=2), pansexual (N=5), demi sexual (N=1) and not sure (N=2). The vast majority of participants were single/never been married (44%; N=239), with the remainder of participants reporting that they were partnered/never been married (33.3%, N=181), married/in a domestic partnership (8.3%; N=45), separated (0.4%; N=2) and divorced (0.4%; N=2).

In regard to employment, 26.5% of participants were Employed (N=144), 2.6% were unemployed (N=14), 0.2% reported as being in an apprenticeship (N=1), 31.9% reported as being undergraduate students (N=173), 16.6% as postgraduate students (N=90) and 8.8% were reported as 'other' students (N=48). There were 41.4% of students in the first year (N=147), 14.1% in the second year (N=50), 12.1% in the third year (N=43) and 18.9% in the fourth year or above (N=67). When university student participants reported their living locations, 28.8% reported as living in the area of the university (N=102), 32.2% reported that they lived within walking distance to the university (N=114) and 29.4% reported as living further afield (N=90).

Materials

To complete this chapter's data analysis, participant responses from the demographics and the SES-R section of the quantitative questions was used as outlined in Chapter 2.

3.8 Chapter 3 Results

Table 1- Frequencies and Percentages of SES-R Victimisation and Perpetration by Assault Category and Strategy

	Victimisation Rates		Perpetration Rates	
	Number of Participants 12mths (%)	Number of Participants Since14 (%)	Number of Participants 12mths (%)	Number of Participants Since14 (%)
Overall Victimisation /Perpetration	172 (31.6%)	330 (60.7%)	28 (6%)	65 (14.1%)
Type of Assault:				
Sexual Contact	144 (26.5%)	293 (53.9%)	24 (5.1%)	45 (9.8%)
Attempted Coercion	59 (10.9%)	167 (30.7%)	6 (1.3%)	12 (2.6%)
Coercion	51 (9.4%)	154 (28.3%)	5 (1.1%)	10 (2.2%)
Attempted Rape	70 (12.9%)	163 (30%)	4 (0.9%)	15 (3.3%)
Rape	69 (12.7%)	168 (30.9%)	4 (0.9%)	12 (2.6%)
Assault Strategy:				
Sexual Contact:				
Coercion	77 (14.2%)	214 (40.3%)	17 (3.6%)	28 (6.1%)
Intoxication	85 (15.9%)	181 (34.5%)	10 (2.1%)	23 (5%)
Threat of Force	12 (2.2%)	48 (9.2%)	5 (1.1%)	3 (0.7%)
Use of force	39 (7.3%)	121 (23.1%)	2 (0.4%)	9 (2%)
Attempted Rape:				
Coercion	59 (10.9%)	167 (31.6%)	6 (1.3%)	12 (2.6%)
Intoxication	58 (10.8%)	128 (24.2%)	3 (0.6%)	8 (1.7%)
Threat of Force	12 (2.2%)	39 (7.4%)	1 (0.2%)	5 (1.1%)
Use of Force	2 (0.4%)	90 (17.1%)	2 (0.4%)	5 (1.1%)
Completed Rape:				
Coercion	51 (9.4%)	154 (29.1%)	5 (1.1%)	10 (2.2%)
Intoxication	54 (9.9%)	133 (25.2%)	1 (0.2%)	9 (2%)
Threat of Force	12 (2.2%)	43 (8.1%)	0 (0%)	3 (0.7%)
Use of Force	28 (4.5%)	106 (20%)	3 (0.6%)	2 (0.4%)

3.8.1 Prevalence of Sexual Assault Experiences

Victimisation

Table 1 shows the number of participants who reported victimisation and perpetration experiences. As a side note, reported prevalence rates are accurate to overall experiences in the overall perpetration/victimisation rows, however, any other assault type figures may not add up or exceed 100% as participants may have reported multiple experiences, which is a known feature of the SES-R. This is true for all other tables that compare victimisation/perpetration rates throughout the chapter by using the SES-R results. Participants were asked to report experiences that occurred in the last 12 months and since the age of 14. Experiences were recorded as 'overall victimisation/perpetration', unwanted sexual contact, attempted coercion, coercion, attempted rape, and rape. Table 1 also expands on these prevalence figures by outlining the numbers and percentages of the 4 strategies that were used against participants during their sexual assault or rape experiences that the SES-R measure. Table 2 then shows the

results of the follow up questions asked to participants concerning the report of multiple experiences, belief of victimisation and gender of offender. The first section of the table highlights how many victims believed that they had been raped, in this case 15.2%, and how many reported perpetrators believed that they had raped someone (0.6%). Participants were then asked if they had multiple experiences, with 54.5% of victims and 4.7% of perpetrators saying yes. The second part of this table highlights the gender of a victim's perpetrator during their experiences or the gender of a perpetrator's victim during their offence. For example, 281 victims stated that the perpetrator who assaulted them was male.

Overall, almost two-thirds (60.7%) of participants reported some type of sexual victimisation since the age of 14 and nearly one-third (31.6%) reported some type of sexual victimisation in the last 12 months from when the questionnaire was completed. When looking at the traditional SES-R scoring methods there was a higher percentage of sexual contact experiences, such as unwanted touching reported since the age of 14 followed by rape, attempted coercion, attempted rape, and coercion experiences. In the past 12 months the most common type of victimisation was again unwanted sexual contact experiences, followed by attempted rape, rape, attempted coercion and coercion experiences. These figures identify the high prevalence figures of sexual victimisation experienced by the current sample of 18-30-year-olds.

When the analysis is expanded to include perpetrator strategy, reported victimisation rates are again numerous both since the age of 14 and within the last 12 months. Since the age of 14, just over 40% of participants had experienced sexual contact through coercion, almost a third had experienced similar through intoxication, such as alcohol and drugs, and almost a quarter of participants had experienced unwanted sexual contact through use of force. Coercion and intoxication were also the most common strategies used against victims of unwanted sexual contact in the last 12 months, followed again by use of force. Similar patterns can be seen between reported experiences of attempted rape and rape both since the age of 14 and in the past 12 months of data collection.

Table 2 - Frequencies and Percentages of SES-R Victimisation and Perpetration Follow-up Questions

	Victimisation	**Perpetration**
Participant SES Follow-up Questions	**Number of participants (%)**	**Number of participants (%)**
Participants who report that they believe have been raped (Victims), or report that they believe they have raped someone (Perpetrators)	82 (15.2%)	3 (0.6%)
Participants who reported more than one experience.	262 (48.5%)	22 (4.7%)
Reported Gender of Perpetrator/Victim:	**Reported Gender of Perpetrators**	**Reported Gender of Victims**
Male Only	281	14
Female Only	19	14
Both M & F	18	6
Reported No Experiences	217	388

Coercion and intoxication were the most common strategies used against victims followed by use of force, although use of force was more commonly reported since the age of 14 over threat of force whereas the opposite pattern was seen in the last 12 months in strategy reports for attempted rape.

Table 1 shows that answers to the SES-R indicate that 168 participants reported rape victimisation since the age of 14 and 69 had reported a completed rape experience in the past 12 months. However, when asked a direct question at the end of the survey only 82 participants believed that they had been raped (15.2%), indicating that potentially 89 participants may not realise that the experiences they had was rape. Moreover, almost half of all participants (48.5%) had reported more than one type of victimisation including both attempted and completed negative sexual experiences, thus highlighting the number of participants who have reported more than one victimisation experience, which will account for uneven table numbers. The majority of victims reported the gender of their perpetrators as male, although both female and a mix of male and female perpetrators were also reported.

Perpetration

Table 1 shows the overall reported perpetration rates amongst participant samples, the prevalence figures for the strategies these individuals used, and Table 2 shows the results of the follow-up questions at the end of the perpetration section of the SES-R. As with the victimisation table, numbers may not match the overall perpetration figures due to multiple

reports by perpetrators. The number of those who reported more than one offence is listed in Table 2.

Overall, 14.1% of participants reported perpetrating either an attempted or completed negative sexual behaviour since the age of 14 and 6% reported perpetrating similar behaviours in the last 12 months. The most common type of perpetration for both time periods recorded was unwanted sexual contact. Similar levels of perpetration experience were then reported for each other attempted and completed negative sexual behaviour, both since the age of 14 and within the last 12 months. The levels of perpetration recorded was a lot lower than originally expected, thus raising the question of why this study failed to replicate similar figures from other studies.

When this analysis is expanded to include the strategies used by these perpetrators in Table 1, it can be seen that coercion and intoxication are the most common strategies used to perpetrate unwanted sexual contact, attempted rape, and rape both within the last 12 months and since the age of 14. However, even though the threat of force and use of force have similar prevalence rates across all reported crimes, completed rape in the last 12 months shows a slightly higher prevalence rate for use of force and lower intoxication and threat of force levels, although this could be a result of the low number of perpetrators recorded in the last 12 months' section of the survey.

The results shown in Table 2 suggest that as the results of the SES-R show that there are between 12-16 people who reported perpetrating rape against another and only 3 people answered the direct question that they believed that they had committed rape, there are a number of individuals that do not think that their behaviours could be considered as rape. Moreover, 22 participants (4.7%) reported as having perpetrated more than one type of negative sexual experience. An equal amount of both male and female victims was reported by perpetrators, and 6 perpetrators had reported as targeting both male and female victims.

3.8.2 *Vulnerable Sub-Group Analysis*

To determine the difference between the specific demographics identified in the literature review as potentially including vulnerable sub-groups to victimisation and perpetration, a number of inferential analyses were conducted. Even though data was collected from participants to include their sexual assault and rape experiences since the age of 14 and in the past 12 months, only data for the past 12 months will be analysed. This was done as it will give a more accurate indication of the experience of the different demographics as they were when

the survey was conducted. For example, a mature student may have had an experience when they were younger, but not during their time at university. Therefore, data from the past 12 months will only be subjected to the inferential analysis. As with victimisation and perpetration prevalence, participant reported experience for specific assault and rape categories may not match the overall victimisation/perpetration figures due to participants reporting multiple experiences.

Additionally, due to some demographical samples reporting low levels of victimisation or perpetration experiences for a number of recorded sexual assault or rape types and strategies, these groups did not undergo inferential analysis, although the descriptive statistics are still included within the respective tables. Therefore, any sub-group that reported less than 5 victimisation or perpetration cases were excluded from inferential analysis. However, due to chi-square test assumptions, this was only true where there were less than 5 cases in 80% of the cells. As non-victim data is absent within the tables but was included in analysis, and all non-victim cells had higher than 5 cases, any chi-square test that was conducted met this assumption. Data that did not meet this assumption but showed a high distribution of cases in the majority of cells underwent a Fisher's Exact Test instead.

Age

Victimisation

Participant age was subjected to inferential tests to determine the difference between victims and non-victims of sexual violence. Through initial analysis of the age between victims and non-victims of all types of assault and assault strategies, normality could not be assumed for any category. The assumption of normality was broken with the age variable due to a significant result during a Shapiro-Wilk test ($P<0.05$) and through observations made on Q-Q plots produced during initial analysis. However, as the central limit theorem states that parametric, inferential tests can still be used with large data sets as all data will show normal distributions with a high enough sample size, each assault type and strategy underwent an independent samples t-test to determine the extent that age can predict sexual assault/rape type and strategy victimisation. Corrections were needed for assault type t-test results as homogeneity of variance was not assumed for all tests due to a significant Levene's test for equality of variance ($p<0.05$). Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics, confidence intervals and mean differences for each different type of assault and strategy for the age of victims and non-victims. Significance was found between the age of participants and their reported overall victimisation

and non-victimisation experiences t(408) = 4.89, P<0.01. The effect of this difference was moderate (Cohen's d̂ = 0.43), providing evidence that those who reported themselves as victims of some sort of attempted or completed assault or rape tended to be younger than those that did not report victimisation. Evidence of a significance was found between the ages of victims and non-victims of unwanted sexual contact t(315) =4.84, P<0.01, with a small effect size (Cohen's d̂ = 0.44), attempted coercion t(86)=3.15, P<0.01, again with a small effect size (Cohen's d̂ = 0.38) and attempted rape t(116)=4.80, P<0.01, with a moderate effect (Cohen's d̂ = 0.53). These results provide evidence that younger participants were significantly more likely to report victimisation and non-victims tended to be older. No significant difference was found between the victims and non-victims of coercion and rape based on their age.

Table 3 - 12 Month Victimisation Differences Between Continuous Age Variable

	Age Participants: Victims Vs Non-Victims							
	Victim		Non-Victim		Confidence Intervals (95%)		Mean Difference	P
	Mean Age (N)	SD	Mean Age (N)	SD	Lower	Upper		
Type of Sexual Assault:								
Overall Victimisation	21.78 (172)	3.02	23.26 (372)	3.78	0.88	2.07	1.48	0.00**
Sexual Contact	21.68 (144)	2.98	23.19 (400)	3.74	0.89	2.12	1.51	0.00**
Attempted Coercion	21.68 (59)	2.77	22.93 (482)	3.69	0.46	2.04	1.26	0.00**
Coercion	22.37 (51)	2.89	22.83 (493)	3.68	-.41	1.33	0.46	0.29
Attempted Rape	21.31 (70)	2.58	23.01 (474)	3.70	0.99	2.39	1.69	0.00**
Rape	22.20 (69)	3.05	22.88 (475)	3.69	-.13	1.48	0.67	0.10
Assault Strategy:								
Sexual Contact:								
Coercion	22.01 (77)	2.07	22.91 (465)	3.69	0.12	1.66	0.89	0.02*
Intoxication	21.52 (85)	2.89	23.02 (451)	3.70	0.79	2.21	1.50	0.00**
Threat of Force	21.83 (12)	3.51	22.79 (524)	3.63	-1.12	3.04	0.96	0.36
Use of force	21.95 (39)	3.16	22.85 (496)	2.65	-.28	2.08	0.90	0.13
Attempted Rape:								
Coercion	21.68 (59)	2.77	22.93 (482)	3.69	.46	2.05	1.25	0.00**
Intoxication	20.90 (58)	2.10	23.01 (481)	3.70	1.47	2.76	2.11	0.00**
Threat of Force	21.92 (12)	2.99	22.82 (529)	3.64	-1.02	2.82	0.90	0.39
Use of Force	25.00 (2)	4.24	22.88 (463)	3.63	-7.19	2.95	-2.12	0.41
Completed Rape:								
Coercion	22.37 (51)	2.89	22.84 (492)	3.69	-.41	1.33	0.46	0.29
Intoxication	21.83 (54)	3.02	22.90 (489)	3.67	.17	1.95	1.06	0.01**
Threat of Force	23.00 (12)	3.19	22.79 (531)	3.64	-2.29	1.86	-.21	0.84
Use of Force	22.75 (28)	2.98	22.79 (514)	3.66	-1.34	1.42	.04	0.95

***** Significant result p<0.05
** Significant result p<0.01

Independent sample t-tests were also conducted for each strategy to determine the difference of participant age between victims and non-victims of sexual assault/rape by each reported perpetration strategy. There was evidence of a significant difference between the ages of non-victims and those that reported victimisation of sexual assault by coercion t(116)=2.29, P<0.05 with a small to moderate effect (Cohen's d = 0.44) and intoxication t(141)=4.19, P<0.01 with a small to moderate effect (Cohen's d= 0.45), Attempted rape by coercion t(86)=3.15, p<0.01 with a small effect (Cohen's d= 0.38) and intoxication t(106)=6.53, P<0.01 with a large effect (Cohen's d= 0.70) and experiences of completed rape by intoxication t(71.43)=2.40, P=0.01, with a small effect (Cohen's d= 0.32).

The direction of these effects again provide evidence that younger participants were more likely to report victimisation than older participants. No significant difference was found between the age of victims and non-victims for threat of force and use of force for any type of assault, as well as completed rape by coercion.

Table 4 - 12 Month Perpetration Differences Between Continuous Age Variable

	Age Participants: Victims Vs Non-Victims							
	Perpetrator		Non-Perpetrator		Confidence Intervals (95%)		Mean Difference	P
	Mean Age (N)	SD	Mean Age (N)	SD	Lower	Upper		
Type of Sexual Assault:								
Overall Perpetration	23.32 (28)	3.51	22.85 (442)	3.64	-1.86	.91	-.47	0.50
Sexual Contact	23.75 (24)	3.49	22.82 (445)	3.63	-2.42	.56	-.93	0.22
Attempted Coercion	24.67 (6)	3.72	22.86 (460)	3.63	-4.74	1.12	-1.80	0.23
Coercion	25.20 (5)	3.70	22.85 (462)	3.63	-5.56	.86	-2.35	0.15
Attempted Rape	22.50 (4)	3.78	22.89 (461)	3.64	-3.20	3.98	.38	0.83
Rape	21.25 (4)	4.57	22.89 (463)	3.63	-1.95	5.22	1.63	0.37
Assault Strategy:								
Sexual Contact:								
Coercion	24.29 (17)	3.29	22.81 (452)	3.62	-3.24	.27	-1.48	0.09
Intoxication	22.40 (10)	2.83	22.87 (457)	3.64	-1.81	2.74	.46	0.68
Threat of Force	22.60 (5)	3.91	22.87 (463)	3.63	-2.94	3.48	.27	0.87
Use of force	20.50 (2)	2.12	22.87 (464)	3.63	-2.69	7.42	2.37	0.36
Attempted Rape:								
Coercion	24.67 (6)	3.72	22.86 (460)	3.63	-4.74	1.13	-1.80	0.23
Intoxication	22.67 (3)	4.62	22.89 (462)	3.64	-3.92	4.37	0.22	0.91
Threat of Force	28 (1)	N/A	22.88 (464)	3.63	-12.2	2.02	-5.12	0.16
Use of Force	25 (2)	4.24	22.88 (463)	3.64	-7.19	2.95	-2.12	0.41
Completed Rape:								
Coercion	25.20 (5)	3.70	22.85 (462)	3.63	-5.56	.86	-2.35	0.15
Intoxication	20 (1)	N/A	22.87 (465)	3.64	-4.28	10.02	2.86	0.43
Threat of Force	N/A	N/A	22.86 (466)	3.63	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Use of Force	21.67 (3)	5.50	22.88 (464)	3.63	-2.93	5.36	1.21	0.56

* Significant result p<0.05
** Significant result p<0.01

Perpetration

Inferential tests were also conducted to determine the difference between the age of perpetrators and non-perpetrators of the various types of assault and strategies used for each type. Independent t-tests were again used, even though assumptions of normality were broken (Shapiro-Wilk, $p>0.05$), due to the assumptions of the central limit theory. Table 4 outlines the descriptive statistics and significance levels of each test. No evidence of a significant difference was found between the age of perpetrators and non-perpetrators for any type of assault or strategy. The potential reasons for this will be outlined in the discussion section of this chapter.

Identified Gender

Victimisation

Even though data from a number of different non-traditional genders were recorded (A-gender & transgendered), the number of participants in these categories are too small to include in the analysis. However, the author understands the importance of gender distinction and believes that these minority groups warrant further investigation with the important topic of sexual assault and rape. Table 5 outlines the reported victimisation experiences of male and female participants; the chi-square significance results and the effect sizes of the differences through the standardised residuals. Overall, evidence was found that male participants were significantly less likely to report experiences of overall victimisation than female participants $X^2(1) =7.28$, $P<0.01$. Moreover, evidence of a significant difference was found between male and female participants in regard to their victimisation experiences of unwanted sexual contact $X^2(1) =4.58$, $P<0.05$ or rape $X^2(1)=5.56$, $P<0.01$, with evidence that men were significantly less likely to report these experiences than women. No evidence of a significant difference was found between gender and reported attempted coercion, coercion, or attempted rape experiences.

The only evidence of a significant difference between male and female participants and the strategies that were used during their reported victimisation was the use of coercion during unwanted sexual contact $X^2(1) =4.50$, $P<0.05$. Male participants were less likely to report coercion during unwanted sexual contact than female participants. No other significant differences were found between male and female participants and their reported assault strategy experiences.

Perpetration

Table 6 shows the reported perpetration figures of male and female participants. Overall, percentage figures show that a higher percentage of male participants report higher perpetration rates than female participants. However, chi-square analysis only found evidence of a difference between participant gender and their reported perpetration rates with overall perpetration $X^2(1) = 8.49$, $P<0.01$ and unwanted sexual contact $X^2(1)=8.92$, $P<0.01$. Evidence suggests that male participants were significantly more likely to report overall sexual assault and unwanted sexual contact perpetration.

Table 5 - 12 Month Victimisation Differences Between Gender Categories – Chi Square Results

	Identified Gender Categories				
	Male		Female		
	N^O Victims (%)	Std Res†	N^O Victims (%)	Std Res†	P
Type of Sexual Assault:					
Overall Victimisation	24 (21.1%)	-2.0*	145 (34.3%)	1.0	0.01***
Sexual Contact	21 (18.4%)	-1.6	120 (28.4%)	0.8	0.03**
Attempted Coercion	8 (7%)	-1.2	50 (11.9%)	0.6	0.13
Coercion	6 (5.3%)	-1.4	44 (10.4%)	0.7	0.09
Attempted Rape	12 (10.5%)	-0.7	57 (13.5%)	0.4	0.40
Rape	7 (6.1%)	-2.0*	61 (14.4%)	1.0	0.01***
Assault Strategy:					
Sexual Contact:					
Coercion	9 (7.9%)	-1.7	66 (15.7%)	0.9	0.03**
Intoxication	14 (12.3%)	-0.9	69 (16.6%)	0.5	0.25
Threat of Force	3 (2.7%)	0.4	8 (1.9%)	-0.2	N/A
Use of force	6 (5.3%)	-0.8	32 (7.7%)	0.4	0.36
Attempted Rape:					
Coercion	8 (7%)	-1.2	50 (11.9%)	0.6	0.13
Intoxication	10 (8.8%)	-0.6	47 (11.2%)	0.3	0.47
Threat of Force	3 (2.6%)	0.4	8 (1.9%)	-0.2	N/A
Use of Force	0 (0%)	-0.6	2 (0.5%)	-0.3	N/A
Completed Rape:					
Coercion	6 (5.3%)	-1.4	44 (10.4%)	0.7	0.09
Intoxication	7 (6.1%)	-1.3	46 (10.9%)	0.7	0.13
Threat of Force	2 (1.8%)	-0.2	9 (2.1%)	0.1	N/A
Use of Force	2 (1.8%)	-1.6	25 (5.9%)	0.8	N/A

† Standardised Residuals
* Significant Standardised Residuals
** Significant result p<0.05
*** Significant result p<0.01

Significant differences were also found between participant gender and reported perpetration behaviours where unwanted sexual contact $X^2(1) = 11.74$, $P<0.01$ was perpetrated using the coercive assault strategy. The direction of the significance provides evidence that

males were significantly more likely to commit unwanted sexual contact against their victims while using coercion, compared to female perpetrators.

Table 6 - 12 Month Perpetration Differences Between Gender Categories – Chi Square Results

	Identified Gender Categories				
	Male		Female		
	N^O Perps (%)	Std Res†	N^O Perps (%)	Std Res†	P
Type of Sexual Assault:					
Overall Perpetration	11 (12.8%)	2.6*	17 (4.5%)	-1.2	0.00***
Sexual Contact	10 (11.6%)	2.6*	14 (3.7%)	-1.3	0.00***
Attempted Coercion	1 (1.2%)	-0.1	5 (1.3%)	0.0	N/A
Coercion	2 (2.4%)	1.1	3 (0.8%)	-0.5	N/A
Attempted Rape	1 (1.2%)	0.3	3 (0.8%)	-0.1	N/A
Rape	2 (2.4%)	1.5	2 (0.5%)	-0.7	N/A
Assault Strategy:					
Sexual Contact:					
Coercion	5 (5.8%)	1.0	12 (3.2%)	-0.5	0.24
Intoxication	6 (7.1%)	3.1*	4 (1.1%)	-1.5	N/A
Threat of Force	1 (1.2%)	0.1	4 (1.1%)	0.0	N/A
Use of force	0 (0%)	-0.6	2 (0.4)	0.3	N/A
Attempted Rape:					N/A
Coercion	1 (1.2%)	-0.1	5 (1.3%)	0.0	
Intoxication	1 (1.2%)	0.6	2 (0.5%)	-0.3	N/A
Threat of Force	0 (0%)	-0.4	1 (0.3%)	0.2	N/A
Use of Force	0 (0%)	-0.6	2 (0.5%)	0.3	N/A
Completed Rape:					N/A
Coercion	2 (2.4%)	1.1	3 (0.8%)	-0.5	
Intoxication	1 (1.2%)	1.9*	0 (0%)	-0.9	N/A
Threat of Force	0 (0%)	N/A	0(0%)	N/A	N/A
Use of Force	1 (1.2%)	0.6	2 (0.5%)	-0.3	N/A

† Standardised Residuals
* Significant Standardised Residuals
** Significant result p<0.05
*** Significant result p<0.01

Sexuality

Victimisation

As with identified gender, there were a number of different sexualities reported by participants other than heterosexual, homosexual, and bisexual. However, due to low numbers these were removed from analysis, although the author again acknowledges the importance of studying these minorities in the context of the important topics covered by this thesis. Table 7 shows the results of the chi-square analysis between reported sexuality and victimisation experiences. There was no evidence of a difference between the different sexualities and their reported assault or rape victimisation experiences for each type of assault, thus suggesting that no one sexuality is particularly vulnerable to one type of victimisation or overall assault/rape victimisation.

Table 7 - 12 Month Victimisation Differences Between Sexuality Categories – Chi Square Results

	Sexuality Categories						
	Heterosexual		Homosexual		Bisexual		
	N^O Victims (%)	Std Res†	N^O Victims (%)	Std Res†	N^O Victims (%)	Std Res†	P
Type of Sexual Assault:							
Overall Victimisation	129 (30.4%)	-0.5	11 (42.3%)	1.0	28 (35%)	0.5	0.34
Sexual Contact	107 (25.2%)	-0.6	10 (38.5%)	1.2	24 (30%)	0.6	0.24
Attempted Coercion	43 (10.2%)	-0.4	5 (19.2%)	1.3	9 (11.3%)	0.1	0.35
Coercion	38 (8.9%)	-0.2	2 (7.7%)	-0.3	9 (11.3%)	0.6	0.77
Attempted Rape	51 (12%)	-0.5	5 (19.2%)	0.9	12 (15%)	0.5	0.46
Rape	52 (12.2%)	-0.2	3 (11.5%)	-0.2	12 (15%)	0.6	0.78
Assault Strategy:							
Sexual Contact:							
Coercion	57 (13.5%)	-0.5	7 (26.9%)	1.7	12 (15%)	0.1	0.16
Intoxication	64 (15.2%)	-0.2	4 (16%)	0.0	14 (18.2%)	0.6	0.80
Threat of Force	10 (2.4%)	0.4	1 (4%)	0.7	0 (0%)	-1.3	N/A
Use of force	24 (5.7%)	-1.2	3 (12%)	0.9	11 (14.3%)	2.3*	0.02**
Attempted Rape:							
Coercion	43 (10.2%)	-0.4	5 (19.2%)	1.3	9 (11.3%)	0.1	0.35
Intoxication	44 (10.5%)	-0.1	4 (16%)	0.8	8 (10%)	-0.2	0.66
Threat of Force	9 (2.1%)	0.1	1 (3.8%)	0.6	1 (1.3%)	-0.5	N/A
Use of Force	1 (0.3%)	-0.5	1 (4.3%)	2.8	0 (0%)	-0.6	N/A
Completed Rape:							
Coercion	38 (9%)	-0.2	2 (7.7%)	-0.3	9 (11.3%)	0.6	0.77
Intoxication	38 (9%)	-0.6	3 (11.5%)	0.3	11 (13.8%)	1.1	0.39
Threat of Force	10 (2.4%)	0.4	1 (3.8%)	0.6	0 (0%)	-1.3	N/A
Use of Force	21 (5%)	-0.1	2 (7.7%)	0.6	4 (5%)	0.0	N/A

† Standardised Residuals
* Significant Standardised Residuals
** Significant result p<0.05
*** Significant result p<0.01

For assault strategy, there was evidence of a significant difference between sexuality and use of force during unwanted sexual contact $X^2(1) = 7.28$, $P<0$. The standardised residual figures suggest that bisexual participants were significantly more likely to report use of force during unwanted sexual contact experiences. No other assault strategy experience differed between sexuality, providing evidence that no one sexuality was more vulnerable to those types of assault or strategy used during their victimisation in this sample.

Perpetration

Table 8 shows reported perpetration rates by reported participant sexuality. Even though there were not enough reported perpetrators in each sexuality category to conduct inferential testing, the table shows that there were individuals in the sample from each sexuality category that reported perpetrating unwanted sexual behaviour.

Table 8 - 12 Month Perpetration Differences Between Sexuality Categories – Chi Square Results

	Sexuality Categories					
	Heterosexual		Homosexual		Bisexual	
	N^O Perps (%)	Std Res†	N^O Perps (%)	Std Res†	N^O Perps (%)	Std Res†
Type of Sexual Assault:						
Overall Perpetration	19 (5.3%)	-0.5	3 (13%)	1.4	5 (6.6%)	0.3
Sexual Contact	17 (4.7%)	-0.2	2 (8.7%)	0.8	4 (5.3%)	0.1
Attempted Coercion	3 (0.8%)	-0.8	1 (4.3%)	1.3	2 (2.6%)	1.0
Coercion	1 (0.3%)	-1.5	2 (8.7%)	3.5	2 (2.6%)	1.3
Attempted Rape	2 (0.6%)	-0.6	1 (4.3%)	1.8	1 (1.3%)	0.4
Rape	2 (0.6%)	-0.6	1 (4.3%)	1.8	1 (1.3%)	0.4
Assault Strategy:						
Sexual Contact:						
Coercion	11 (3.1%)	-0.4	2 (8.7%)	1.3	3 (3.9%)	0.2
Intoxication	8 (2.2%)	0.1	1 (4.5%)	0.7	1 (1.3%)	-0.5
Threat of Force	4(1.1%)	0.0	1 (4.3%)	1.5	0 (0%)	-0.9
Use of force	2 (0.6%)	0.3	0 (0%)	-0.3	0 (0%)	-0.6
Attempted Rape:						
Coercion	3 (0.8%)	-0.8	1 (4.3%)	1.3	2 (2.6%)	1.0
Intoxication	1 (0.3%)	-0.9	1 (4.3%)	2.2	1 (1.3%)	0.5
Threat of Force	0 (0%)	-0.9	1 (4.3%)	4.2	0 (0%)	-0.4
Use of Force	1 (0.3%)	-0.5	1 (4.3%)	2.8	0 (%)	-0.6
Completed Rape:						
Coercion	1 (0.3%)	-1.5	2 (8.7%)	3.5	2 (2.6%)	1.3
Intoxication	1 (0.3%)	-0.2	0 (0%)	-0.2	0 (0%)	-0.4
Threat of Force	0 (0%)	N/A	0 (0%)	N/A	0 (0%)	N/A
Use of Force	1 (0.3%)	-0.9	1 (4.3%)	2.2	1 (1.3%)	0.7

† Standardised Residuals

* Significant Standardised Residuals

** Significant result $p<0.05$

*** Significant result $p<0.01$

Marital Status

Victimisation

Table 9 - 12 Month Victimisation Differences Between Marital Status Categories – Chi Square Results

	Marital Status Categories						
	Single/Never Been Married		Partnered/Never Been Married		Married or Domestic Partnership		
	N^O Victims (%)	Std Res†	N^O Victims (%)	Std Res†	N^O Victims (%)	Std Res†	P
Type of Sexual Assault:							
Overall Victimisation	104 (36.7%)	1.6	58 (27.9%)	-0.9	7 (14.6%)	-2.1*	0.00***
Sexual Contact	87 (30.7%)	1.5	49 (23.6%)	-0.7	5 (10.4%)	-2.1*	0.00***
Attempted Coercion	38 (13.5%)	1.4	17 (8.3%)	-1.1	3 (6.3%)	-1.0	0.10
Coercion	32 (11.3%)	1.1	13 (6.3%)	-1.4	5 (10.4%)	0.3	0.15
Attempted Rape	45 (15.9%)	1.4	22 (10.6%)	-1.0	3 (6.3%)	-1.3	0.07
Rape	45 (15.9%)	1.6	19 (9.1%)	-1.4	4 (8.3%)	-0.8	0.06
Assault Strategy:							
Sexual Contact:							
Coercion	48 (17%)	1.3	22 (10.6%)	-1.3	5 (10.6%)	-0.6	0.10
Intoxication	56 (19.9%)	1.7	28 (13.7%)	-0.8	1 (2.2%)	-2.3*	0.00***
Threat of Force	9 (3.2%)	1.3	2 (1%)	-1.1	0 (0%)	-1.0	N/A
Use of force	25 (8.9%)	1.1	11 (5.4%)	-0.9	2 (4.3%)	-0.7	0.26
Attempted Rape:							
Coercion	38 (13.5%)	1.4	17 (8.3%)	-1.1	3 (6.3%)	-1.0	0.10
Intoxication	41 (14.6%)	1.9*	17 (8.3%)	-1.1	0 (0%)	-2.3*	0.00***
Threat of Force	7 (2.5%)	0.3	4 (1.9%)	-0.3	1 (2.1%)	-0.1	N/A
Use of Force	0 (0%)	-1.0	1 (0.6%)	0.2	1 (2.2%)	1.8	N/A
Completed Rape:							
Coercion	32 (11.3%)	1.1	13 (6.3%)	-1.4	5 (10.4%)	0.3	0.16
Intoxication	39 (13.8%)	2.0*	14 (6.8%)	-1.5	1 (2.1%)	-1.7	0.01***
Threat of Force	8 (2.8%)	0.9	2 (1%)	-1.1	1 (02.1%	0.0	N/A
Use of Force	16 (5.7%)	0.3	8 (3.9%)	-0.9	4 (8.3%)	0.9	N/A

† Standardised Residuals
* Significant Standardised Residuals
** Significant result p<0.05
*** Significant result p<0.01

Due to the low number of separated or divorced participants in this young sample, these categories have been removed from analysis, although past literature outlines the importance of studying these groups due to potential vulnerability. When looking at the victimisation data in Table 9 we can see that single or partnered participants that have never been married report a much higher victimisation rate in the majority of types of assault and assault strategy categories in the last 12 months than participants who are married. Overall, there was evidence of a significant difference between overall sexual crime victimisation and the different types of marital status categories $X^2(2) = 11.26$, $P<0.01$. Those who were married or in a domestic relationship were significantly less likely to experience victimisation than single or partnered participants in this sample.

Moreover, a similar finding was found between those who had reported unwanted sexual contact victimisation and marital status $X^2(2) = 9.96$, $P<0.01$, where evidence was again

found that married participants were less likely to experience unwanted groping etc. than single or partnered participants. No evidence of a significant difference was found between marital statuses and the other types of sexual assault or rape that was recorded.

Regarding assault strategy, evidence of a significant difference was found for intoxication during unwanted sexual contact $X^2(2) = 10.61$, $P<0.01$, attempted rape $X^2(2)=11.21$, $P<0.01$ and completed rape $X^2(2)=10.21$, $P<0.01$. Married participants were significantly less likely to experience unwanted sexual contact through intoxication compared to the other types of marital status, whereas single participants were significantly more likely to experience attempted and completed rape by intoxication than partnered or married/domestic partnership participants. These results suggest that partnered and especially single participants could have a higher risk of victimisation as they are more likely to take part in activities that lead to either alcohol or drug intoxication. No other significance was found between the other types of assault strategies and marital status categories.

Employment

Victimisation

Due to the low response rate from unemployed and apprentice participants, these have been removed from analysis. However, the importance of understanding negative sexual experiences is important amongst these populations as many young people now choose paths other than university (Department of Business, Innovation & Skills, 2016), so further investigation is needed. The rates of victimisation in Table 10 show that undergraduate students have higher percentages of victimisation than any other employment category in the majority of experiences reported for both type of assault and strategy used during victimisation. Chi-square analysis suggests evidence that there is a significant difference between victims and non-victims of overall victimisation and type of employment $X^2(3) = 13.26$, $P<0.01$, with evidence showing that undergraduate students were significantly more likely to experience some type of victimisation than participants who are employed or a different type of student in this sample. Moreover, evidence of a significant difference was found between employment category and their reported victimisation experiences for unwanted sexual contact $X^2(3) = 14.27$, $P<0.01$ and attempted rape $X^2(3)=7.67$, $P=0.05$, with undergraduate students showing significantly higher victimisation rates than those who are employed or other types of students. There was no evidence of a significant difference found between victims and non-victims of any other assault type by employment type.

For assault strategy, evidence of a significant difference was found between victims and non-victims of unwanted sexual contact $X^2(3) = 7.83$, $P<0.05$ and completed rape $X^2(3)=13.53$, $P<0.01$ by intoxication in regard to their reported employment. Undergraduate students were more likely, and employed participants were less likely, to experience unwanted sexual contact by intoxication, whereas undergraduate students were again significantly more likely to report experiencing completed rape victimisation by intoxication. These results support the idea that undergraduate students are more at risk of negative sexual experiences through exposure to situations where the victim may be intoxicated, although surprisingly this significance was not found for attempted rape through intoxication. No other significance was found between the different types of employment and assault strategy.

Perpetration

Appropriate chi-square analysis for differences between participant employment and reported perpetration by assault types found no significance differences, including overall perpetration. Table 11 shows the overall reported perpetration rate by employment. The highest number of perpetrators seemed to by postgraduate students, although due to the small sample size of perpetrators this finding was not found to be significant. Chi-square analysis was not appropriate for the low number of reported perpetrators in each cell, although some participants did report perpetration.

Table 10 - 12 Month Victimisation Differences Between Employment Categories – Chi Square Results

	Employment Categories								
	Employed		Undergraduate Student		Postgraduate Student		Student (Other)		
	N[O] Victims (%)	Std Res†	N[O] Victims (%)	Std Res†	N[O] Victims (%)	Std Res†	N[O] Victims (%)	Std Res†	P
Type of Sexual Assault:									
Overall Victimisation	43 (25.9%)	-1.3	81 (40.5%)	2.3*	23 (23%)	-1.5	19 (31.1%)	0.0	0.00***
Sexual Contact	32 (19.3%)	-1.7	69 (34.5%)	2.3*	19 (19%)	-1.4	18 (29.5%)	0.5	0.00***
Attempted Coercion	15 (9%)	-0.7	24 (12.1%)	0.6	9 (9.2%)	-0.5	8 (13.1%)	0.6	0.68
Coercion	15 (9%)	-0.1	17 (8.5%)	-0.4	10 (10%)	0.2	5 (8.2%)	-0.3	0.29
Attempted Rape	18 (10.8%)	-0.7	35 (17.5%)	1.9*	7 (7%)	-1.6	7 (11.5%)	-0.3	0.05**
Rape	18 (10.8%)	-0.6	33 (16.5%)	1.6	9 (9%)	-1.0	5 (8.2%)	-1.0	0.13
Assault Strategy:									
Sexual Contact:									
Coercion	20 (12%)	-0.6	32 (16%)	0.8	10 (10.1%)	-1.0	11 (18.3%)	0.9	0.33
Intoxication	15 (9.2%)	-2.1*	44 (22.2%)	2.4*	11 (11.1%)	-1.1	11 (18.3%)	0.5	0.00***
Threat of Force	3 (1.8%)	-0.4	5 (2.5%)	0.2	2 (2%)	-0.2	2 (3.4%)	0.5	N/A
Use of force	12 (7.4%)	0.0	18 (9.1%)	0.9	3 (3%)	-1.6	5 (8.3%)	0.3	0.29
Attempted Rape:									
Coercion	15 (9%)	-0.7	24 (12.1%)	0.6	9 (9.2%)	-0.5	8 (13.1%)	0.6	0.68
Intoxication	14 (8.4%)	-0.9	30 (15.1%)	1.9	6 (6.1%)	-1.4	6 (10%)	-0.2	0.07
Threat of Force	3 (1.8%)	-0.3	5 (2.5%)	0.4	2 (2%)	0.0	1 (1.6%)	-0.2	N/A
Use of Force	0 (0%)	-0.6	0 (0%)	-0.6	1 (1.1%)	1.8	0 (0%)	-0.3	N/A
Completed Rape:									
Coercion	15 (9%)	0.0	17 (8.5%)	-0.2	10 (10.1%)	0.4	5 (8.2%)	-0.5	0.96
Intoxication	10 (6%)	-1.5	28 (14%)	2.1*	7 (7.1%)	-0.8	5 (8.2%)	-0.3	0.04**
Threat of Force	2 (1.2%)	-0.8	5 (2.5%)	0.4	3 (3%)	0.6	1 (1.6%)	-0.2	N/A
Use of Force	9 (5.4%)	0.3	11 (5.5%)	0.3	3 (3%)	-0.9	3 (5%)	0.0	N/A

† Standardised Residuals
* Significant Standardised Residuals
** Significant result p<0.05
*** Significant result p<0.01

Table 11 - 12 Month Perpetration Differences Between Employment Categories – Chi Square Results

	Employment Categories								
	Employed		Undergraduate Student		Postgraduate Student		Student (Other)		
	N^O Perps (%)	Std Res†	N^O Perps (%)	Std Res†	N^O Perps (%)	Std Res†	N^O Perps (%)	Std Res†	P
Type of Sexual Assault:									
Overall Perpetration	7 (4.8%)	-0.4	7 (4.1%)	-0.8	9 (10%)	1.8	2 (4.1%)	-0.4	0.21
Sexual Contact	7 (4.8%)	0.0	5 (2.9%)	-1.1	8 (8.9%)	1.7	2 (4.1%)	-0.2	0.20
Attempted Coercion	0 (0%)	-1.3	2 (1.2%)	0.1	3 (3.4%)	2.0	0 (0%)	-0.7	N/A
Coercion	1 (0.7%)	-0.2	1 (0.6%)	-0.4	2 (2.2%)	1.4	0 (0%)	-0.7	N/A
Attempted Rape	1 (0.7%)	0.0	1 (0.6%)	-0.1	1 (1.1%)	0.5	0 (0%)	-0.6	N/A
Rape	1 (0.7%)	0.0	2 (1.2%)	0.8	0 (0%)	-0.8	0 (0%)	-0.6	N/A
Assault Strategy:									
Sexual Contact:									
Coercion	5 (3.4%)	0.1	1 (0.6%)	-1.9	7 (7.8%)	2.3	2 (4.1%)	0.3	N/A
Intoxication	4 (0.5)	0.5	3 (1.8%)	-0.4	3 (3.3%)	0.7	0 (0.0%)	-1.0	N/A
Threat of Force	0 (0%)	-1.1	2 (1.2%)	0.4	2 (2.2%)	1.4	0 (0%)	-0.7	N/A
Use of force	0 (0%)	-0.8	1 (0.6%)	0.3	1 (1.1%)	1.0	0 (0%)	-0.5	N/A
Attempted Rape:									N/A
Coercion	0 (0%)	-1.3	2 (1.2%)	0.1	3 (3.4%)	2.0	0 (0%)	-0.7	
Intoxication	1 (0.7%)	0.4	1 (0.6%)	0.3	0 (0.0%)	-0.6	0 (0%)	-0.5	N/A
Threat of Force	0 (0%)	N/A	0 (0%)	N/A	0 (0%)	N/A	0 (0%)	N/A	N/A
Use of Force	0 (0%)	-0.6	0 (0%)	0.-6	1 (1.1%)	1.8	0 (0%)	-0.3	N/A
Completed Rape:									N/A
Coercion	1(0.7%)	-0.2	1 (0.6%)	-0.4	2(2.2%)	1.4	0 (0%)	-0.7	
Intoxication	1 (0.7%)	1.2	0 (0%)	-0.6	0 (0%)	-0.4	0 (0%)	-0.3	N/A
Threat of Force	0 (0%)	N/A	0 (0%)	N/A	0 (0%)	N/A	0 (0%)	N/A	N/A
Use of Force	0 (0%)	-0.8	2 (1.2%)	1.4	0 (0%)	-0.6	0 (0%)	-0.5	N/A

† Standardised Residuals
* Significant Standardised Residuals
** Significant result $p<0.05$
*** Significant result $p<0.01$

Ethnicity

Victimisation

Table 12 shows the victimisation rates of each different ethnic category. Overall, chi-square analysis found no significant difference between reported victims and non-victims of each assault/rape category and participant ethnicity. This pattern was seen for all types of assault. Due to the low number of responses of victims from non-white/Caucasian participants it was not appropriate to run inferential analysis for assault strategy. However, future research should look at this area due to the importance of identifying victimisation rates among differing ethnicities.

Table 12 - 12 Month Victimisation Differences Between Ethnicity Categories – Chi Square Results

	Ethnicity Categories												
	White English/Scottish/Northern Irish		White European/ Southern Ireland		White Asian		Black African/ Caribbean		White and Black African/ Caribbean		Other		P
	N^O Victims (%)	Std Res†	N^O Victims (%)	Std Res†	N^O Victims (%)	Std Res†	N^O Victims (%)	Std Res†	N^O Victims (%)	Std Res†	N^O Victims (%)	Std Res†	
Type of Sexual Assault:													
Overall Victimisation	135 (32.8%)	0.4	10 (26.3%)	-0.6	6 (37.5%)	0.4	4 (33.3%)	0.1	4 (23.5%)	-0.6	13 (27.1%)	-0.6	0.84
Sexual Contact	114 (27.7%)	0.5	10 (26.3%)	0.0	5 (31.3%)	0.4	2 (16.7%)	-0.7	3 (17.6%)	-0.7	10 (20.8%)	-0.8	0.76
Attempted Coercion	41 (10%)	-0.5	5 (13.2%)	0.4	2 (12.5%)	0.2	1 (8.3%)	-0.3	2 (11.8%)	0.1	8 (16.7%)	1.2	N/A
Coercion	38 (9.2%)	-0.1	2 (5.3%)	-0.8	3 (18.8%)	1.2	0 (0%)	-1.1	2 (11.8%)	0.3	6 (12.5%)	0.7	N/A
Attempted Rape	54 (13.1%)	0.1	4 (10.5%)	-0.4	5 (31.3%)	2.0	3 (25%)	1.2	2 (11.8%)	-0.1	2 (4.2%)	-1.7	N/A
Rape	51 (12.4%)	-0.2	5 (13.2%)	0.1	5 (31.3%)	2.1*	2 (16.7%)	0.4	1 (5.9%)	-0.8	5 (10.4%)	-0.4	0.29
Assault Strategy:													
Sexual Contact:													
Coercion	58 (14.2%)	0.0	6 (15.8%)	0.2	2 (12.5%)	-0.2	1 (8.3%)	-0.5	3 (17.6%)	0.4	7 (14.6%)	0.1	N/A
Intoxication	67 (16.6%)	0.3	7 (18.4%)	0.4	4 (25%)	0.9	2 (16.7%)	0.1	2 (11.8%)	-0.4	3 (6.4%)	-1.6	N/A
Threat of Force	9 (2.2%)	0.0	1 (2.6%)	0.2	1 (6.3%)	1.1	0 (0.0%)	-0.5	0 (0%)	-0.6	1 (2.2%)	0.0	N/A
Use of force	30 (7.4%)	0.1	1 (2.7%)	-1.0	4 (25%)	2.6*	1 8.3%)	0.1	1 (5.9%)	-0.2	2 (4.3%)	-0.8	N/A
Attempted Rape:	41 (10%)												
Coercion		-0.5	5 (13.2%)	0.4	2 (12.5%)	0.2	1 (8.3%)	-0.3	2 (11.8%)	0.1	8 (16.7%)	1.2	N/A
Intoxication	45 (11%)	0.1	4 (10.5%)	-0.1	5 (31.3%)	2.5*	3 (25%)	1.5	1 (5.9%)	-0.6	0 (0%)	-2.2*	N/A
Threat of Force	8 (2%)	-0.4	1 (2.6%)	0.2	1 (6.3%)	1.1	0 (0%)	-0.5	0 (0%)	-0.6	2 (4.2%)	0.9	N/A
Use of Force	0 (0%)	-1.2	0 (0%)	-0.4	0 (0%)	-0.2	0 (0%)	-0.2	0 (0%)	-0.3	2 (5.7%)	4.8*	N/A
Completed Rape:													N/A
Coercion	38 (9.3%)	-0.1	2 (5.3%)	-0.8	3 (18.8%)	1.2	0 (0%)	-1.1	2 (11.8%)	0.3	6 (12.5%)	0.7	
Intoxication	40 (9.8%)	-0.1	5 (13.2%)	0.6	5 (31.3%)	2.7*	1 (8.3%)	-0.2	1 (5.9%)	-0.5	2 (4.2%)	-1.3	N/A
Threat of Force	6 (1.5%)	-1.0	1 (2.6%)	0.2	1 (6.3%)	1.1	1 (8.3%)	1.4	0 (0%)	-0.6	3 (6.3%)	1.9	N/A
Use of Force	19 (4.6%)	-0.5	1 (2.6%)	-0.7	3 (18.8%)	2.4*	1 8.3%)	0.5	1 (5.9%)	0.1	3 (6.4%)	0.4	N/A

† Standardised Residuals
* Significant Standardised Residuals
** Significant result p<0.05
*** Significant result p<0.01

3.8.3 Binary Logistic Regression Analyses

After initial chi-square analysis, any demographic category that had evidence of increased vulnerability to a specific assault type or assault by strategy was then considered to undergo binary logistic regression. Assault types or strategies that showed multiple demographic vulnerabilities were then tested to determine the predictability that these characteristics had on differentiating between victims and non-victims of each assault type. Attempted rape by use of force did not undergo logistic regression due to the small sample size of victims in all categories.

Victimisation

Overall Victimisation

Direct logistical regression was used to identify the impact of several factors on the likelihood that participants reported overall attempted and completed sexual assault/ rape victimisation. After initial chi-square analysis, four independent factors were tested (Age, Identified Gender, Employment and Marital Status). Initial logistic regression analysis showed that the full model including all factors was statistically significant $X^2(8) = 37.53$, $P<0.01$, indicating that it could correctly distinguish between those who reported sexual assault and rape victimisation and those that did not. Overall, between 7% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 10% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in overall assault and rape victimisation was explained by this model and it correctly classified 68.3% of cases. Table 13 shows that three factors significantly contributed to the initial analysis of the model. Female participants were significantly more likely to report victimisation (OR= 2.12), meaning that they were 2.12 times more likely to report their victimisation than males, with a small to moderate effect size (Cohen's d= 0.41). Additionally, participants who reported their marital status as 'partnered' were significantly less likely to report victimisation (OR= .63) than single participants, with a small effect size (Cohen's d= -0.25). Victimisation was also significantly more likely to occur as age decreased (OR=.92) showing that younger participants were more likely to report victimisation, with a very small effect (Cohen's d= -0.05).

As Cohen (1988) stated that any effect that was less than 0.2 was insignificant, a secondary binary logistic regression was conducted after removing variables which failed to achieve the base 0.2 effect level after converting each variable Odds Ratio into a Cohen's d effect size. The only variable to be removed for overall victimisation was age. The secondary analysis model was again found to be significant $X^2(6) = 33.09$, $P<0.01$, showing that it could

correctly distinguish between those that had reported at least one type of victimisation and those that reported non-victimisation. Overall, between 6% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 9% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in overall assault and rape victimisation was explained by this model and it correctly classified 68.9% of cases. Table 14 shows that all 3 variables significantly contributed to the model. Female participants were found to be 2.12 times more likely to report at least on type of victimisation than male participants (OR=2.12), with a small to moderate effect (Cohen's d= 0.41). In regard to marital status, participants were less likely to report victimisation in the last 12 months if they were partnered (OR=.62), with a small effect (Cohen's d= -0.26) or married/in a domestic partnership (OR=.29), with a medium to large effect (Cohen's d=0.68), than single participants. Once the variable age was removed the model shows that undergraduate students were 1.83 times more likely to report at least one type of victimisation than those who were employed (OR=1.83), with a small effect (Cohen's d= 0.33).

Table 13 – Initial Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Overall Victimisation Based on Age, Gender, Employment and Marital Status

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Age	-.082	4.36 (1)	.01*	.92 (.85 to .99)
Gender – Female	.75	8.12 (1)	.00*	2.15 (1.26 to 3.55)
Employment - Employed		4.04 (3)	.35	
Employment – Undergraduate	.29	1.01 (1)	.38	1.28 (.72 to 2.29)
Employment – Postgraduate	-.33	1.01 (1)	.41	.77 (.42 to 1.43)
Employment – Other Student	-.06	0.03 (1)	.78	.90 (.42 to 1.92)
Marital Status – Single		6.74 (2)	.04*	
Marital Status - Partnered	-.47	4.94 (1)	.03*	.66 (.42 to .96)
Marital Status - Married	-.88	3.08 (1)	.08	.42 (.15 to 1.31)
Constant	.64	.41 (1)	.52	1.90

*Significant result

Table 14 – Final Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Overall Victimisation Based on Age, Gender, Employment and Marital Status

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Gender – Female	.75	8.15 (1)	.00*	2.12 (1.26 to 3.54)
Employment - Employed		10.06 (3)	.02*	
Employment – Undergraduate	.60	6.12 (1)	.01*	1.83 (1.13 to 2.95)
Employment – Postgraduate	-.16	.25(1)	.61	.86 (.47 to 1.56)
Employment – Other Student	.21	.35 (1)	.55	1.24 (.62 to 2.48)
Marital Status – Single		9.88 (2)	.00*	
Marital Status - Partnered	-.47	5.01 (1)	.02*	.62 (.41 to .94)
Marital Status - Married	-.88	6.91 (1)	.00*	.29 (.12 to .73)
Constant	-1.38	220.14 (1)	.00*	.25

*Significant result

Sexual Contact

Binary logistic regression was also used to identify the impact that four previously identified factors (Age, Identified Gender, Employment, and Marital Status) have on the likelihood that participants had reported unwanted sexual contact victimisation. The full model with all factors was found to be statistically significant $X^2(7) = 32.56$, $P<0.01$, indicating that the model can distinguish between those that reported unwanted sexual assault victimisation and those that did not. The model correctly classified 73.3% of cases and was found to explain between 6% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 9% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance found. Table 15 shows that identified gender was found to significantly contribute to the model, where female participants (OR=1.87) were 1.87 times more likely to report victimisation than male participants, with a small effect (Cohen's d= 0.34). Age was also found to significantly contribute to the model, with younger participants more likely to report victimisation than older participants (OR=0.91), with a very small, insignificant effect size (Cohen's d= 0.02).

A secondary regression analysis was again conducted after removing variables that were found to have a less than 0.2 effect (Cohen, 1988), which included the age variable. The full model with all factors was found to be statistically significant $X^2(6) = 29.83$, $P<0.01$, indicating that the model can distinguish between those that reported unwanted sexual assault victimisation and those that did not. The model correctly classified 74.4% of cases and was found to explain between 6% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 8% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance found. Table 16 shows that gender was again a significant contributor to the model, with female participants being 1.87 times more likely to report sexual contact victimisation than male participants (OR=1.87), with a small effect (Cohen's d = 0.34). The removal of age as a variable changed the model so that marital status and employment are now significant contributors. In regard to marital status, participants who were married or in a domestic partnership were significantly less likely to report sexual contact victimisation (OR=0.27) than participants who were single, with a medium to large effect (Cohen's d = 0.72). Undergraduate students were also 2.15 times more likely to report sexual contact victimisation than participants who were employed (OR=2.15), with a small to moderate effect (Cohen's d=0.44).

Table 15 – Initial Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Sexual Contact Based on Age, Gender, Employment and Marital Status

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Age	-.09	2.69 (1)	.02*	.91 (.26 to 1.27)
Gender – Female	.62	5.10 (1)	.02*	1.87 (1.08 to 3.21)
Employment - Employed		3.33 (3)	.34	
Employment – Undergraduate	.47	2.25 (1)	.13	1.60 (.86 to 2.98)
Employment – Postgraduate	-.04	.02 (1)	.88	.95 (.49 to 1.84)
Employment – Other Student	.29	.54 (1)	.46	1.34 (.60 to 2.97)
Marital Status – Single		4.31 (2)	.11	
Marital Status - Partnered	-.34	2.38 (1)	.12	.70 (.45 to 1.09)
Marital Status - Married	-0.97	2.76 (1)	.09	.37 (.11 to 1.19)
Constant	-.04	0.01 (1)	.96	.95

*Significant result

Table 16 – Final Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Sexual Contact Based on Age, Gender, Employment and Marital Status

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Gender – Female	.63	5.14 (1)	.02*	1.87 [1.08 to 3.21]
Employment - Employed		11.25 (3)	.01*	
Employment – Undergraduate	.77	8.41 (1)	.00*	2.15 [1.28 to 3.62]
Employment – Postgraduate	.03	.00 (1)	.92	1.03 [.54 to 1.99]
Employment – Other Student	.56	2.28 (1)	.13	1.75 [.85 to 3.63]
Marital Status – Single		7.06 (2)	.03*	
Marital Status - Partnered	-.37	2.73 (1)	.09	.69 [.45 to 1.07]
Marital Status - Married	-1.30	5.53 (1)	.02*	.27 [.09 to .81]
Constant	-1.74	27.70 (1)	.00*	.17

*Significant result

Attempted Rape

Direct logistic regression was also used to identify the impact of previously identified factors (Age and Employment) on the likelihood that victims had reported attempted rape experiences. The full model including both factors was found to be statistically significant $X^2(4) = 19.20$, $P<0.01$, meaning that the model can correctly distinguish between those that reported victimisation and those that did not. Between 4% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 7% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance found can be explained by the model, and it correctly classified 87.3% of cases, mainly those that have not experienced attempted rape victimisation in the last 12 months. Table 17 showed that only age was found to significantly contribute to the model, where victimisation increased as age decreased (OR= 0.84), suggesting that younger participants were more likely to report victimisation in the last 12 months. The effect size was small (Cohen's d= -0.09).

As only two variables were significant at the chi-square stage it was not relevant to remove age for this model, although age was again below the 0.2 effect level.

Table 17 – Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Attempted Rape Based on Age and Employment

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Age	-.16	10.64 (1)	.00*	.84 (.76 to .93)
Employment - Employed		3.06 (3)	.38	
Employment – Undergraduate	-.18	.25 (1)	.61	.82 (.39 to 1.72)
Employment – Postgraduate	-.66	2.00 (1)	.15	.51 (.20 to 1.29)
Employment – Other Student	-.64	1.53 (1)	.21	.52 (.19 to 1.45)
Constant	2.05	2.62 (1)	.10	

*Significant result

Strategy Used

Sexual Contact – Intoxication

Binary logistic regression was also used to explore the impact that identified factors (Age, Employment, and Marital status) have on the likelihood that participants reported unwanted sexual contact victimisation by intoxication. Overall initial analysis proved that the model was found to be significant $X^2(6) = 21.90$, $P<0.01$, meaning that it could correctly identify the difference between victims and non-victims. The model accounts for between 4% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 8% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance found and correctly identified 84.2% of cases. However, no factor that was introduced to the model was found to contribute to the significance. Table 18 shows the test statistics.

As the variable age was again found to have less than 0.2 effect (Cohen, 1988), it was again removed for a secondary logistic regression analysis. The overall final model was found to be significant $X^2(5) = 22.37$, $P<0.01$, meaning that it could correctly identify between victims and non-victims of sexual assault by intoxication. The model accounts for between 4% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 7% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance found and correctly identified 84.3% of cases. The variable 'employment' was a significant contributor to the model, with undergraduate students being 2.25 times more likely to report victimisation of sexual contact by intoxication (OR=2.25) than any other employment, with a small to moderate effect (Cohen's d=0.44). Moreover, participants who reported being married or in a domestic partnership were less likely to report this type of victimisation (OR=.12) than single participants, with a very large effect (Cohen's d=1.17). Table 19 outlines the contributing variables to the model.

Table 18 – Initial Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Sexual Contact by Intoxication Based on Age, Employment and Marital Status

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Age	-.04	.79 (1)	.37	.95 (.87 to 1.05)
Employment - Employed		3.34 (3)	.34	
Employment – Undergraduate	.55	2.25 (1)	.13	1.73 (.84 to 3.56)
Employment – Postgraduate	-.05	.01 (1)	.90	.95 (.42 to 2.13)
Employment – Other Student	.24	.28 (1)	.59	1.27 (.51 to 3.18)
Marital Status – Single		4.52 (2)	.10	
Marital Status - Partnered	-.34	1.69 (1)	.19	.71 (.43 to 2.13)
Marital Status - Married	-1.92	3.32 (1)	.06	.14 (.01 to 1.15)
Constant	-.77	.41 (1)	.52	.46

*Significant result

Table 19 – Final Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Sexual Contact by Intoxication Based on Age, Employment and Marital Status

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Employment - Employed		8.16 (3)	.04*	
Employment – Undergraduate	.81	6.12 (1)	.01*	2.25 [1.18 to 4.28]
Employment – Postgraduate	.08	.03 (1)	.89	1.08 [.47 to 2.48]
Employment – Other Student	.48	1.17 (1)	.28	1.62 [.68 to 3.85]
Marital Status – Single		5.86 (2)	.05*	
Marital Status - Partnered	-.41	2.36 (1)	.12	.66 [.39 to 1.12]
Marital Status - Married	-2.09	4.10 (1)	.04*	.12 [.02 to .93]
Constant	-1.88	37.77 (1)	.00*	.15

*Significant result

Attempted Rape – Intoxication

The impact of identified factors (Age, Ethnicity, and Marital Status) on reported victimisation of attempted rape by the intoxication strategy was also tested using binary logistic regression. The full model was found to be significant $X^2(3) = 26.32$, $P<0.01$, with the model correctly identifying between victims of attempted rape by intoxication and those that have not been victimised. The model can correctly explain between 5% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 10% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 89.1% of cases. Table 20 shows that age was the only significant contributor with the model (OR=.84), meaning that victimisation was less likely to occur in the last 12 months when age increased, with a small effect size (Cohen's d= -0.10).

After the Odds ratio for each variable had been converted to an effect size, age again failed to reach the minimum effect of 0.2 so was again removed Secondary analysis was not necessary as marital status was the only remaining variable.

Table 20 – Initial Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Attempted Rape by Intoxication Based on Age, Ethnicity and Marital Status

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Age	-0.15	8.94 (1)	.00*	.86 (.75 to .93)
Marital Status – Single		2.73 (2)	.25	
Marital Status - Partnered	-.51	2.73 (1)	.09	.57 (.30 to 1.07)
Marital Status - Married	-18.46	.00 (1)	.99	.00 (.00)
Constant	2.07	3.40 (1)	.06	7.95

*Significant result

Completed Rape – Intoxication

Due to chi-square significance, the impact of identified factors (Marital Status & Employment) on the likelihood of participants reporting completed rape victimisation by intoxication was tested using binary logistic regression. Overall, the model was found to be significant $X^2(5) = 21.02$, $P<0.01$, meaning that it was able to distinguish between those who reported victimisation of completed rape by intoxication and those that did not. The model accounted for between 4% and 9% of the variance found and correctly identified 90.4% of the cases. Table 21 shows that marital status (partnered) was the only significant contributor to the model, meaning that partnered participants were less likely to report victimisation than participants who reported themselves as single (OR=.45) with a small to moderate effect (Cohen's d= -0.44).

Table 21 – Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Completed Rape by Intoxication Based on Employment and Marital Status

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Employment - Employed		4.52 (3)	.21	
Employment – Undergraduate	.60	2.36 (1)	.12	1.83 (.84 to 3.95))
Employment – Postgraduate	-.03	.00 (1)	.95	.96 (.35 to 2.67)
Employment – Other Student	-.13	.05 (1)	.82	.88 (.28 to 2.75)
Marital Status – Single		5.24 (2)	.07	
Marital Status - Partnered	-.78	5.24 (1)	.02*	.45 (.23 to .89)
Marital Status - Married	-19.15	.00 (1)	.99	.00 (.00)
Constant	-2.13	35.16 (1)	.00	.11

*Significant result

Perpetration

As discussed during the chi-square analysis, a number of perpetration categories have been found to be significant. However, due to the low response rate of perpetrators to the different categories the decision was made not to run binary logistic regression analysis on common factors due to the possibility of hypothesis testing errors. Reasons for the low response rate are discussed later in this chapter.

3.9 Chapter Discussion

The main aim of this chapter was to identify sexual assault, rape and sexual coercion victimisation and perpetration prevalence rates among a young sample in the UK. The aim of the chapter was also to compare prevalence rates of student and non-student populations, identify other vulnerable sub-groups and to determine the predictability of demographical characteristics in differentiating between victims and non-victims of assault, rape, or sexual coercion. Each objective of the chapter will be discussed briefly in relation to past research and what conclusions can be made from the data.

Prevalence Rates

The vast majority of this project uses reported participant prevalence figures from the last 12 months of when the survey was disseminated. This is done to make sure that reported victimisation and perpetration rates are as relatable as possible to other variable data that was collected to make it as reliable as possible, such as making sure that reported employment status was relevant at the time of their sexual violence experiences. However, to determine previous prevalence that may have occurred earlier than the last 12 months, participants were also asked to report victimisation and perpetration prevalence since the age of 14. Since the age of 14, almost two thirds (60.7%) of participants reported experiencing some sort of attempted or completed unwanted sexual victimisation. Over half of the participants had experienced unwanted groping or touching (53.9%) and around 30% of participants reported experiencing attempted unwanted sex though coercive means and completed unwanted sex through coercive means, as well as attempted and completed oral, anal, or vaginal sex, which would be classed as rape. Even though the vast majority of previously discussed literature concerns victimisation experiences that have occurred within a specific timeframe of the participants life (CSEW, 2017) or during their time at university (Camp et al, 2018; University of Manchester's Student Union, 2017; NUS, 2010, 2014, 2019), these results provide further evidence that sexual violence is prevalent in the UK and that a large amount of young people do suffer from unwanted, physical sexual experiences.

Reported participant victimisation experiences within the last 12 months were found to be much higher than those reported by the CSEW (2017) and NUS (2010) studies that looked to identify similar victimisation rates. However, a greater level of victimisation may have been found in the current study as the CSEW attempted to identify prevalence rates among a wide range on ages, whereas this project has looked specifically at the younger age spectrum (18-

30), which was found to have higher rates of victimisation than any other age in the CSEW (2017). Therefore, a greater level of prevalence would be expected in this group. Moreover, the NUS (2010) only reviewed female students, whereas this investigation included male participants, which could account for the discrepancy. However, the prevalence findings for participant experiences within 12 months are very similar, although slightly lower, to those found by the NUS (2019) study. One reason for this slight discrepancy may again be due to the samples of each study and the timeframe of the victimisation measured. For example, this study asked participants to report their victimisation within the last 12 months, whereas the NUS (2019) measured victimisation throughout the whole student experience. Moreover, these findings come from a sample of students and non-students, whereas the NUS (2019) specifically looked at student samples. Research from the US provided a mix of prevalence findings between studies, although the findings from this study seemed to lie somewhere towards the top end of prevalence findings for sexual assault (Palmer et al., 2010), and middle of the ground for serious assault and rape estimates (Mellins et al., 2017). The discrepancies with previous research can again be explained through the use of different methods of data collection, although the SES-R was the most appropriate method of prevalence measure for this project. Clear evidence was also found in this chapter suggesting that young people are open to multiple victimisation experiences, with almost half of the sample reporting more than one type of victimisation experience. This finding reinforces the high vulnerability rate of younger adults and their potential to be victimised in multiple situations.

Overall, the prevalence figures found in this research reflect similar figures found in past investigations. This finding provides further evidence that many young people do experience sexual violence victimisation and that previous official estimates may underestimate the amount of young people that are victimised. Moreover, as victimisation prevalence figures are similar to previous research the use of this data provided a good base for further analysis in the project, which allowed for more reliable findings.

Research regarding self-reported perpetration prevalence has been varied, with past scales gaining anything from 12.5 (Koss & Oros, 1987) to 30% (Walsh et al., 2019). However, even though self-reported perpetration was within that range for those that reported perpetration since the age of 14, when participants were asked to report perpetration behaviours within the last 12 months the result was much lower than expected. One potential reason for this low report rate was originally coined by Walsh et al. (2019), who suggested that a recent negative societal perception change towards perpetrators of sexual violence, both serious and

minor, would lead to perpetrators not wanting to report their behaviour, even in an anonymous setting. To speculate, this could also explain why the prevalence rate since the age of 14 still hit accepted levels, as they may feel more comfortable with reporting behaviour that were committed when they were younger and that they may be able to excuse to a greater degree. Another potential explanation for a low perpetrator report rate is due to the targeted age range. Felson and Cundiff (2014) suggested that older men may target younger people as they cannot gain sexual release with younger, attractive people legitimately and therefore may need to seek illegitimate means to obtain their goal. Further investigation would be needed with an older sample to gain evidence for this speculation. Even though a high perpetration prevalence rate was not found, a low rate may reinforce ideas that people are less likely to be open about perpetration, even if the survey is anonymous, due to a shift in societal judgements to those who commit sexual violence. Even though the sample of perpetrators was small, the most common type of reported behaviour was perpetrating unwanted sexual assault, which may indicate the high excusable rate of this type of behaviour.

Strategy Prevalence

Traditionally, sexual assault and rape were seen as situations when one individual used force or a threat of force to have intercourse with another without their consent. However, the sample in this study reported that perpetrators were more likely to use coercive tactics or take advantage of a participant while they were intoxicated, which reflects findings from previous research (Brown et al., 2009; Ingemann-Hansen et al., 2009; Lorenz & Ullman, 2016; Messan-Moore et al., 2008). Even though this study did not specifically identify whether the experiences were a result of perpetrator forced intoxication or victim self-intoxication, we can speculate from past research that the majority of these experiences may be from perpetrators taking advantage of targets who have self-intoxicated with alcohol and drugs (Kilpatrick et al., 2007), as a large number of young people have been found to engage in drinking and drug behaviour in the UK. Coercive tactics being one of the most prevalent found is also not a surprising finding. Young people may be specifically vulnerable to being coerced into unwanted sexual acts, either as they are particularly impressionable and vulnerable in a new environment, such as university (Brown et al., 2009) or because perpetrators choose to target victims through insulting their appearance and self-worth (Messan-Moore., 2008). As a large number of young people in UK society today focus on their appearance and are concerned with the opinion of others on social media apps, such as Instagram, it is not surprising that a large number of perpetrators may use verbally coercive language to insult their targets and reduce

their self-worth to have sex with them. A look into how demographical sub-groups differ with the strategy used against them may offer a greater insight into the assault itself.

Student vs non-Student

One of the other main objectives of this chapter was to identify and compare the sexual violence 12-month prevalence rates of 18–30-year-old students and young people who either choose not to go to university or choose to enter full time employment. Overall, undergraduate students reported a higher level of sexual victimisation in the last 12 months than employed participants or any other type of student. Specifically, evidence was found in this sample that undergraduate students were much more likely to experience unwanted sexual contact, such as groping and touching, as well as attempted rape victimisation. The higher victimisation prevalence rate is very similar to the recent NUS (2019) reported student prevalence figures, and these findings also provide further support to the claims made by past research that sexual violence is higher among students and that this means that they may be more at risk (CSEW, 2017; Fisher & Cullen., 2000; Fisher et al., 2010). However, even though undergraduate students reported a higher level of victimisation in the past 12 months, employed, postgraduate and other students, such as PGCE and PhD students, also reported a high level of victimisation, which is similar to past reported student victim prevalence levels, i.e., roughly equal to 20-30% of the population experiencing at least one type of victimisation (Fisher & Cullen., 2000; NUS, 2010). For example, over 1 in 4 employed participants reported experiencing at least one type of victimisation. This included almost 1 in 5 experiencing unwanted sexual contact, almost 1 in 10 experiencing attempted or completed coercion to have sex and over 1 in 10 experiencing attempted or completed serious sexual assault/rape. Therefore, even though the prevalence rates are not as high as undergraduate students, a high number of employed, postgraduate and other student young people seem to also suffer from sexual victimisation.

To understand the differences between undergraduate and other employment groups we can also refer to the strategy that the perpetrator used to assault or rape their victim. As expected, undergraduate students had the highest reported experience rate of any perpetrator strategy. One hypothesis of this chapter stated that undergraduate students would have significantly higher levels of victimisation while they were intoxicated compared to non-students or other students. Undergraduate student participants were significantly more likely to experience unwanted sexual contact and completed rape by intoxication compared to other groups and had a higher level of attempted rape by intoxication experiences, although this

figure failed to find significance. Nevertheless, this finding provides enough evidence so we can retain this hypothesis over the null. One potential reason for this difference could be attributed to the level of responsibility between students and those who are employed. Traditionally, undergraduate students have the opportunity to drink and socialise to a higher degree, meaning that they can drink more and go out throughout the working week (Abbey et al., 2007; Lorenz & Ullman, 2016), whereas those who are employed have a responsibility to their workplace and cannot engage in similar behaviour. Moreover, postgraduate, PGCE and PhD students differ in responsibility as they have a higher workload or may engage in full time employment while studying. Therefore, even though employed and postgraduate students may still engage in similar drinking or socialising behaviours when they can, their increased responsibility may act as a protective factor from perpetrators who target intoxicated individuals. However, in regard to the other strategies used by perpetrators, evidence from this study suggests that no one type of employment is significantly more vulnerable than the others.

The findings of this study provide evidence that undergraduate students report more sexual victimisation experiences than young people who are postgraduates or in full time employment. Although even though these rates are higher, other employments also indicated a high level of victimisation in the last 12 months. One explanation of this finding is that young people in general are either attractive targets to potential perpetrators or all young people, no matter their employment, engage in risky behaviours that may increase their chances of assault or rape victimisation (Buddie & Testa, 2005). However, the responsibility of young people who are employed or are in higher levels of university life may mean they have less opportunity to engage in risk taking behaviours or come into contact with potential perpetrators as, in any case, these findings suggest that awareness and support strategies should be extended from solely targeting undergraduate student populations to also include young people in full time employment or other training paths. Even though a lot of companies have sexual harassment procedures in place to support women and others after they have negative experiences (UCU, 2016), these are aimed to support victims after a negative experience and do not try to educate or support them about risks that may avoid victimisation in the first place.

Vulnerable Sub-Groups

Overall, those who reported at least one type of victimisation experience in this study were on average younger than those who reported no victimisation in the last 12 months. This pattern was seen for unwanted sexual contact, attempted coercion, and attempted rape experiences, but

not for coercion and rape experiences. However, even though differences were found, as the majority of participants were aged between 18-25 the average mean difference between victims and non-victims was small, which could explain the lack of a difference found between coercion and rape victims with non-victims. Even though this difference was small, the findings again provide evidence that higher responsibility could play a factor in engaging in risk factors that could potentially bring people in contact with those who would perpetrate sexual crimes. The average age of victims where differences were found tended to be around 21, which is an age where young people still feel a lot of freedom and engage in risk taking behaviours, such as drinking or staying out at night with friends (Lorenz & Ullman, 2016), whereas the average age of non-victims where differences were found (around 23) tend to be where young people start to take on more responsibility, such as long term relationships or full time jobs, which would provide less opportunity to engage in this risk taking behaviour. One hypothesis of the study was that younger people would be significantly more likely to be victimised through intoxication strategies. This was found for reported sexual contact, attempted, and completed rape experiences, thus indicating that there is enough evidence to retain this hypothesis over the null at this time. Moreover, evidence was found that younger participants were more likely to become victims of sexual contact and attempted rape by coercion. These findings can again be explained to the simple fact that younger people engage in a higher number of risky behaviours, such as a high level of drinking behaviour and entering situations where they come into contact with potential perpetrators, which increases the attractiveness of younger people as a target and means they suffer a greater level of victimisation as originally suggested by Felson & Cundiff (2014).

In regard to the age of perpetrators, no evidence was found in this study that young perpetrators tended to be older than non-perpetrators in this sample, thus showing no evidence that perpetrators need to target younger victims as they cannot gain legitimate, younger sexual partners themselves (Felson & Cundiff, 2016). This lack of a finding could be due to the survey only gaining responses from 18-30-year-olds. To speculate, young people may not need to resort to illegitimate needs to gain sex from an attractive target, which could mean that this effect, where reported perpetrators are significantly older than non-perpetrators, may only be present in older populations. No evidence was also found suggesting that young perpetrators tend to use one type of strategy over the other. However, this lack of evidence could be due to the low level of reported perpetrators.

As expected from reviewing past research (Conley et al., 2017; CSEW, 2017; Elliot et al., 2004; Fisher & Cullen., 2000; Kimmerling, et al., 2002; NUS, 2014; NUS, 2019; ONS, 2017), men were less likely to report sexual victimisation overall, but also specifically for unwanted sexual contact and rape experiences. Moreover, over one third of female participants reported at least one type of victimisation experience, thus highlighting the high victimisation level of young women. Therefore, the hypothesis stating that males will be less likely to report victimisation can be retained. However, 1 in 5 male participants reported at least one type of sexual assault or rape experience in the past 12 months, which also highlights the high level of unwanted sexual attention that young males experience. As the sample of male participants was much smaller than the female sample, it is difficult to determine if this level of victimisation is stable throughout the general population. More research should be conducted on larger male samples to reinforce these findings. This is important as it is generally thought that men will not seek support after an assault or rape due to fear of reprisal or acceptance of traditional male stereotypes (Coxell & King, 2010; Davies, 2000; Elliot et al., 2004; Pearson & Barker, 2019; Tewksbury, 2007). Awareness and support strategies should be aimed at both student and non-student male populations and should educate them on the dangers that young men may face with sexual violence to support men after assaults, but also to increase support that reduces the crime in the first place.

Statistically, due to low perpetration rates and a smaller sample of men than women, findings provide some evidence that men were more likely to perpetrate overall victimisation, unwanted sexual contact, and unwanted sexual contact by intoxication, thus there is some evidence to retain the hypothesis concerning men statistically perpetrating more unwanted sexual acts than women, which coincides with past research (Koss et al., 1987; Loh at al., 2005). Moreover, the vast majority of reported victims indicated that they were mainly assaulted by a man, with only a few reporting being assaulted by a woman or both male and female perpetrators. However, around 1 in 20 women did report perpetrating sexual assault and rape within the sample, suggesting that young women also target others to gain unwanted sex as indicated in past research (Struckman-Johnson et al., 2003). Perpetrators also reported their victims as being equally male and female, suggesting that female perpetrators in the sample targeted both women and men as part of their assault. Any prevention strategy concerning sexual assault among young people should therefore also consider addressing female perpetrated assault.

The finding from this study provides evidence that no one participant sexuality was significantly more vulnerable to sexual assault or rape, thus we must retain the null hypothesis over the alternative stating that homosexual and bisexual participants may be more at risk due to their need to engage in greater risk (Coulter et al., 2017; Coulter & Rankin, 2017; Kimerling et al., 2002). Some evidence was found that suggested bisexual participants reported higher levels of unwanted sexual contact victimisation by use of force and homosexual participants reported higher levels of attempted rape victimisation by use of force. As homosexual and bisexual individuals have been found to engage in a higher level of risk-taking behaviour to find romantic partners (Johnson Matthews & Napper., 2016), experiencing a higher level of victimisation by force may reflect this behaviour, such as meeting strangers from gay dating apps or going to locations, such as gay bars, on their own. One potential reason why a lack of difference was found between participant sexualities lies within the reported gender of homosexual and bisexual participants. Some research has indicated that gay, male young people are at a higher risk of assault due to an engagement in higher risk than gay, female young people, such as looking for more casual hook-ups and meeting a higher number of strangers (Coulter et al., 2017; Kimerling et al., 2002). As this study only looked at overall sexuality victimisation and did not differentiate between gender this could explain why no difference was found.

As predicted, evidence was found suggesting that participants who reported their marital status as married were less likely to report overall victimisation and unwanted sexual contact in the last 12 months, thus we can retain the hypothesis stating that married or domestic partnership participants would report less experiences instead of the null. Moreover, those who were married or in a domestic partnership were less likely to report assault or rape by intoxication than single participants in the last 12 months. This evidence reinforces the idea that being married or in a domestic partnership can potentially be a protective factor against sexual assault or rape (Rennison et al., 2013; Siddique, 2016). An individual's spouse will act as a guardian in situations where they may be targeted by potential perpetrators (Franklin & Menaker, 2016) or an individual who is married or in a domestic partnership may engage in less risky behaviours that bring them into contact with potential perpetrators as they spend more time with their spouse or have responsibilities to their family (Siddique, 2016). Again, perpetrators may then target single or partnered, but not married young people as they will be seen as more attractive targets.

Overall, the vast majority of participants who completed the questionnaire were Caucasian and from the UK. Therefore, the sample suffered from low ethnic diversity, as with previous research (CSEW, 2017). As a result, no one particular ethnicity was found to be significantly vulnerable to each assault/rape type, thus we could not retain the hypothesis suggesting that there would be differences between the different ethnicities and instead we must retain the null hypothesis. Moreover, any inferential difference found between participant ethnicity on the strategy that perpetrators used is difficult to interpret due to the low diversity of the sample. For example, ethnic categories that had a small number of respondents were grouped as 'other', meaning that the differences found for this group are difficult to attribute to one particular ethnicity. Even though differences were not found in this project, developing methods to recruit more ethnically diverse populations will be needed to identify vulnerability in ethnic groups.

Demographical Predictability

The final objective of this chapter was to determine the extent that significant demographical groups could predict assault and rape victimisation, or the strategy used by perpetrators. This was done to find out whether significant, vulnerable demographic factors can explain a high variance between victims and non-victims, or to determine if other factors are needed to explain the variance between the two groups.

Overall, age, gender, a participant's employment, and marital status were all significant contributors to explaining the variance between those that reported at least one type of victimisation and those that reported no victimisation. Being female was a significant contributor to overall victimisation and unwanted sexual contact, thus providing more evidence that women are more likely to report higher levels of sexual victimisation, which has been discussed in previous research as a result of increased attractiveness of a target to perpetrators who are mainly men (Koss et al., 1987; Loh et al., 2005), or the perpetuation and belief in a male dominated society and traditional masculine norms (Conley et al., 2017; Elliot et al., 2004; Fisher & Cullen., 2000; Kimmerling et al., 2002; NUS, 2019). When employment was found to be a significant contributor, undergraduate students were significantly more likely to report victimisation for overall victimisation and sexual contact, as well as sexual contact, attempted and completed rape by intoxication. Again, this provides more evidence that students engage in riskier behaviours and have less responsibility, which seems to provide more opportunities for them to come into contact with potential perpetrators. Moreover, being an

undergraduate student seemed to be a significant contributor to perpetrator strategies involving intoxication, which could reflect higher alcohol and drug consumption within this sample. Regression analysis found that marital status was a significant contributor to explaining the variance of victimisation for overall victimisation, unwanted sexual contact, unwanted sexual contact by intoxication and completed rape by intoxication. However, whereas being an undergraduate student or female increased a participant's chances of reporting victimisation, being married, or partnered reduced the chance of victimisation, thus suggesting that having a partner may be a protective factor. As previously discussed, this is potentially due to the guardianship that partner offers to deter potential perpetrators and the responsibility of marriage reducing the risks that people take that may put them in contact with potential perpetrators (Siddique, 2016). Moreover, marital status was a protective factor in regard to any perpetrator strategy involving intoxication, which again reinforces the idea that those who are married or partnered may spend more time with their partner instead of engaging in riskier behaviours.

When age was included within the regression analysis, it was found to have a very small effect on the model and meant that employment was no longer a significant contributor. As the overall sample of reported victims were younger than reported non-victims, including age as a variable confounded the results as all employed or non-undergraduate victims were on average young, meaning that employment lost its significance. However, as age was found to only have a tiny effect, to get an accurate model to predict the variance it needed to be removed. Finding this reaction in the results is interesting as it highlights the level of younger victims across all employments and not just undergraduate students. It also highlights the need to expand existing support, prevention, and awareness strategies to all young people as they leave full time education, as those who enter full time employment have also been found to report victimisation to a certain degree.

Even though the regression analysis correctly identified the significant contributors to differentiating victims and non-victims, there are two issues with relying on just demographical differences to predict victimisation. Firstly, each variable only had a small to moderate effect when they significantly contributed to the model. Moreover, no one model in the current chapter could explain more than 10% of the variance between victims and non-victims. As it is generally accepted that psychological regression models should be able to explain over 10% variance (Moksony, 1990), just using demographical variables to predict sexual victimisation is not very accurate. It is therefore concluded that other variables, such as risk factors, are

needed to be able to better predict victimisation among a young population and therefore further investigation is needed.

3.10 Chapter Conclusion

Overall, this chapter highlights important findings regarding sexual assault and rape among young people in the UK. Firstly, a large number of participants had experienced some sort of sexual violence in the last 12 months, and a large number have experienced unwanted sexual acts since the age of 14. Even though evidence suggests that some sub-groups have higher victimisation rates than others, such as undergraduate students and women, victimisation was still present in young samples from other sub-groups in the last 12 months, such as men or those who are employed. Targeted awareness, support, and intervention strategies, such as the I Heart Consent initiative, are helpful in reducing victimisation rates among identified sub-groups, such as undergraduate students and women, but it is the authors opinion that the findings of this chapter suggest that these strategies need to be expanded and try and reach as many young groups as possible, especially those who may enter full time employment or other paths that do not include going to university.

A few of the findings in this chapter suggest that sub-groups with less responsibility may have higher risk of assault or rape due to their ability to engage in more risky behaviours. However, it is important to reinforce at this point that it is never a victim's fault for their negative experiences. Those who engage in what is considered risky behaviour, such as alcohol consumption, should never have to change their behaviour to reduce their victimisation chances. Instead, targeted support strategies need to be used to allow individuals to engage in the legal behaviours they want without fear of being the target from a potential perpetrator.

Lastly, the chapter found that even though some sub-groups seem to have higher victimisation levels, demographical differences only explain a small amount of variance between victims and non-victims of each assault and rape type. Therefore, we must conclude that other risky behaviours, attitudes, or situations may account for a higher level of variance between those who are victimised and those who are not. Therefore, other chapters of this thesis considered other potential risk factors to assault or rape.

Chapter 4 – Risk Factors as Predictors of Sexual Assault and Rape in the UK

The previous chapter concluded that sexual assault, sexual coercive and rape experiences were prevalent amongst a sample of 18-30-year-old people in the UK, providing evidence that young people do experience a high number of sexual crimes. However, even though some demographical groups were found to be more likely to report victimisation than others, regression analysis found that significant demographical variables only explained a relatively small amount of variance between those who reported victimisation and those that did not. These findings support the theoretical foundation of the RAT, by suggesting that other factors than an individual's demographical group membership interact to increase the chance of victimisation, such as situational or attitudinal factors that increase the vulnerability or attractiveness of a target, factors that reduce guardianship or those that may motivate offenders to target that specific individual. Exploring the second main area of potential risk as identified in the conceptual framework of the project, this chapter will aim to identify cognitive, situational, and behavioural risk factors through the use of previously established theory that are more common among victims of negative sexual experiences and whether these risk factors are better able to predict victimisation and explain the variance between victims and non-victims of sexual assault, sexual coercion, and rape. Moreover, factors will also be explored to determine their predictive power in regard to those that reported perpetrating unwanted sexual experiences.

4.1 Risk Factor Literature Review

The next part of the chapter will review literature that has previously explored known risk factors that have been found to suggest increased vulnerability to sexual assault and rape victimisation and some that have also been previously associated with sexual assault and rape perpetration. The factors discussed in this section are those that have been seen as appropriate for the current project.

Previous Sexual History, Hook-Up, and Dating Behaviours

A number of investigations have shown that those who have had a higher number of previous consensual sexual partners have been at higher risk of sexual crime victimisation (Franklin, 2010; Koss, 1985; Koss, 2011; Vicary, Klingaman & Harkness, 1995). Some researchers suggest that this is because the potential victim may not recognise danger cues that are present with a potential perpetrator of assault or rape due to their past experience with previous sexual

partners and the normalisation of behaviours that put them at risk (Franklin, 2010). Similarly, it has been suggested that those who have had consensual sexual intercourse at a younger age may also be less likely to identify danger cues and normalise risky behaviour (Franklin, 2010; Koss, 1985; Vicary et al., 1995). Therefore, those that fail to fully recognise danger cues of potential assault and rape situations, such as trying to get a victim on their own or give them a large amount of alcohol, could be seen as an attractive, vulnerable victim to a perpetrator due to their previous sexual history. According to the RAT, previous sexual history could interact with other factors, such as the presence of a motivated offender and the lack of guardianship to increase an individual's risk of sexual assault and rape due to the risk that a lack of danger cue recognition would put them in (Franklin, 2010).

Similar to an individual's previous sexual history, their dating and hook-up behaviours are a potential factor that can increase assault and rape risk. A hook-up is defined as a one-off intimate encounter between two individuals with no expectation of further contact or relationship, and can include a multitude of intimate behaviours, such as kissing to full sexual intercourse (Bogle, 2008). Unlike dating, where two individuals get together with the potential for a future relationship to develop, hook-ups allow individuals to experience a casual intimate interaction without any pressure to enter into a long-term commitment. Stinson (2010) explains that hook-ups are extremely popular amongst young adults in the US, especially those who attend colleges or universities. They explain that hook-ups occur more often in modern society due to the development of social norms that allow for more relaxed sexual practices that have been developed as a result of popular culture and support from peers. Hook-ups also allow young people to explore their sexuality, as well as test and negotiate their sexual boundaries (Stinson, 2010). However, Flack et al. (2016) in their study of female college students found that there was a high level of unwanted sexual activity that occurred to those who reported engaging in casual hook-ups. These results suggest that engaging in hook-up behaviours may increase the risk of assault, although their results indicate that the vast majority of assaults that occurred during hook-ups were either with acquaintances or previous romantic partners, with only a small amount occurring with a stranger. Therefore, an individual who engages in a higher number of casual encounters may be more vulnerable to assault due to their proximity to potential motivated perpetrators who would try to extract a greater level of sexual activity than the potential victim would want to engage in. Moreover, potential perpetrators who have had consensual sex with a victim previously may be inclined to push for unwanted sex in a future encounter through a belief of entitlement due to their history with the victim. However,

even though engaging in casual hook-up encounters may increase risk of assault, this factor alone will not be responsible for an individual's victimisation. Instead, it is thought that higher hook-up encounters can interact with other risk factors, such as alcohol use and the use of modern technologies to increase victimisation risk (Flack et al., 2016; Owen, Rhoades, Stanley & Fincham, 2010).

To fully understand how previous sexual history and the modern hooking up phenomenon can increase sexual assault and rape risk, it is important to test the relationship between these factors with sexual assault and rape prevalence, as well as other potential risk factors so a better picture can be created. This will help inform strategies to support potential victims on how to better avoid risk factors and reduce some of the risks associated with hooking-up, such as STD's (Paul & Hayes, 2002).

Online Dating Behaviours and Sexting

Recently, it has become more common practice to use online dating to find either a romantic or sexual partner (Hobbs, Owen & Gerber, 2016). There are many potential reasons for the use of online dating practices instead of traditional dating methods, such as providing a wider selection of choices/options (Cobb & Kohno, 2017), to have control over which individuals you meet and the level of intimacy you have with them (Hobbs et al., 2016). Therefore, there is a solid argument that online dating can be a positive tool for those trying to find intimacy, either friendship to long term relationships, and instead of destroying traditional relationship values, such as monogamy and merit in long term relationships, they instead augment them (Hobbs et al., 2016). However, even though online dating can be positive, there are also potential risks that could increase vulnerability to sexual violence (Scannell, 2019). Firstly, online dating platforms provide a potential 'hunting ground' for offenders who are looking for vulnerable individuals to target for unwanted sex (Scannell, 2019). Once a potential victim had been identified, the offender would employ deception, coercion, or threats to attempt to meet the victim so they can assault or rape them (Maas, Bray & Noll, 2019). Another potential reason why online dating can be seen as a risk factor is the motivations of those that use online dating. Overall, it has been suggested that men who use online dating services are more likely to be after sexual partners or hook-ups, whereas it has been suggested that female users are more likely to look for friendships or long-term relationships (Cobb & Kohno, 2017; Hobbs et al., 2016). The discrepancy of each individual's expectation could then lead to confusion on the outcome of a meetup and ultimately, unwanted behaviour to occur (Scannell, 2019), especially

if other factors come into play, such as previous sexting activity between the individuals (Maas et al., 2019). In regard to the RAT, motivated offenders can use multiple dating sites and apps to identify and track attractive, vulnerable individuals for potential victimisation. Other factors that have been found to increase sexual assault/rape risk, such as a previous history of abuse, hook-up behaviours, pornography use, sexting experiences and previous sexual history could also increase the attractiveness of a potential victim that uses online dating platforms (Maas et al., 2019). Moreover, unless an individual has a close and supportive peer and family network, online dating can be seen as a way to interact with potential strangers without a high level of guardianship. Not only could a potential victim be at risk of coercion, as they are speaking one-on-one with a stranger, normally without notifying anyone else, but meeting someone you met online is normally done alone, without friend or family support. These types of meet ups would give an offender ample opportunity to take advantage of the person they met online.

Sexting is another digital behaviour that may lead to a higher risk of sexual assault and rape. Definitions of sexting can be varied (Klettke et al., 2014), although in this project the term sexting will be synonymous with the sending or receiving of explicit, naked pictures via an online platform, such as social messaging or dating applications. Overall, previous investigations have found that sexting is prevalent in modern society, both amongst adolescents and young adults (Dir & Cyders, 2015; Klettke et al., 2014), as well as adults (Currin, Hubach, Sanders & Hammer, 2017; Florimbio, Brem, Garner, Grigorian & Stuart, 2018; Florimbio et al., 2019; Gamez-Guardix, Almendros, Borrajo & Calvete, 2015). Prevalence figures from a variety of studies place those that have sent or received an explicit message at anywhere between 13-68% (Dir & Cyders, 2015; Florimbio et al., 2019; Klettke et al., 2014; Maas et al., 2019), although the vast majority of studies place this figure at the higher end of the spectrum. As sexting has been found to be prevalent among both adult and adolescent populations there has been interest into identifying personality differences between those who engage in sexting behaviours and those who do not (Morelli et al., 2020), as well as discovering the potential consequences of this behaviour. In their literature review of sexting consequences, Klettke et al., (2014) found that sexting had been linked to negative mental health issues, as well as legal issues, such as someone sharing the content of a sext without permission or sharing explicit images with a minor. One major issue with these results is that Klettke et al., (2014) found that the majority of sexting studies were conducted in the US, limiting the amount of applicability of these findings to other countries even though they provide an in-depth look into the sexting behaviours of adults and adolescents in the US. However, regarding sexual assault and rape

the findings from a number of studies suggest that engaging in sexting behaviour online could lead to riskier sexual behaviour, such as engaging in increased hook-up behaviours with strangers and engaging in unprotected sex, while also potentially putting individuals at risk of sexual assault, violence, or rape (Maas et al., 2019).

Engaging in sexting behaviours would increase the risk of unwanted sexual contact in several ways according to the RAT. Firstly, sexting could increase the potential attractiveness of an individual as a target. A potential offender who receives or sees an explicit image of a potential victim will see them as an easy target and, depending on the availability of victim personal data (Cob & Kohno, 2017), could either look to track the potential victim down or coerce them to meet where they can force them to have sex. Maas et al., (2019) suggests that victims who are sexualised online through being coerced into online sexual behaviour are also more likely to be victimised in offline sexual interactions. Moreover, the sending of explicit messages before meeting in a traditional dating environment could lead to an expectation of sexual contact from one party that may not be reciprocated by the other, thus potentially leading to unwanted sex (Klettke et al., 2014). Moreover, Abbey` (1982) found that men who viewed explicit material were more likely to identify friendly behaviour as an indication of flirting or want of sex. Misinterpretations of behaviour by men as an indication of sexual consent could therefore lead to higher risk of unwanted sexual behaviour (Wegner & Abbey, 2016).

However, even though there is some evidence that those that engage in sexting behaviours are more at risk of sexual victimisation there is also evidence that a large number of people in modern society that engage in these behaviours do not become victims or have negative experiences with sexting (Dir & Cyders, 2015). More investigation is therefore needed to determine the interaction of sexting with other factors, such as online dating activity and demographics, to see who is more vulnerable to victimisation.

Peer Pressure and Negative Peer Influence

Throughout early life our peers and family members can have a profound effect on our attitudes and behaviours (Choukas-Bradley, Giletta, Cohen & Prinstein, 2015). As such, evidence suggests that influences from peers can have an effect on the level of risk-taking behaviour that an individual engages in, either to conform to common peer behaviour (Iwamoto & Smiler, 2013; Widman, Choukas-Bradley, Helms & Prinstein, 2016), or as an opportunity to distance themselves from current peers as a way of proving themselves as superior, such as in romantic appeal (McGuire & Leaper, 2016). In regard to sexual risk-taking behaviour, it is widely

accepted that men can feel a great sense of pressure from society and their peers to have sex regularly due to the acceptance and perpetuation of traditional masculine norms and stereotypes (Conell, 2005; Javaid 2015; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992). Therefore, men may feel pressured to engage in sexual relationships regularly, as they may fear negative reactions from their male peers, as well as feeling less masculine or embarrassment if they do not conform to traditional masculine norms (Conell, 2005; Ford, 2018). Moreover, women and girls have also been found to experience a large amount of pressure to engage in their first sexual encounter, although unlike men, women are then pressured to not engage in repeated, casual sexual experience to avoid negative labels (Macleod & Jearey-Graham, 2016; Maxwell & Chase, 2008). One major issue with the current research base is that studies tend to only focus on the pressure to have sex from adolescent peers or peers that belong to unique social groups, such as sorority or sports groups (Franklin & Menaker, 2016; Gardner & Steinberg, 2005; Vicary et al., 1995). Therefore, there is little evidence suggesting that peer pressure to have sex continues into early adulthood and how it may continue to pressure individuals to take high risk sexual behaviours and the negative consequences these could have.

Instead of direct pressure, individuals may also feel pressure to have regular sex if they feel a certain level of competition with their peers (McGuire & Leaper, 2016). For example, individuals may feel jealous of peers who are in sexual relationships if they are not. Moreover, they may feel left out if peers arrange social activities specifically geared to romantic couples and they are single. These pressures, plus more direct forms of peer pressure, can lead individuals to engage in riskier practices to find a sexual or romantic partner, such as online dating (Gardner & Steinberg, 2005; Widman et al., 2016). Relating back to RAT, individuals who engage in riskier behaviours may be more likely to meet potential offenders, and the pressure some of these individuals feel may then leave them more vulnerable to motivated sexual offenders (Jewkes et al., 2006; Maxwell & Chase, 2008). Moreover, if a person's peers are pressuring them to find a sexual partner, they will effectively be removing themselves as effective guardians against motivated sexual offenders, thus increasing their vulnerability

Negative peer influence can also potentially lead to individuals becoming motivated to either offend themselves or excuse the perpetration behaviours of their peers. Peer groups, especially adolescent groups, tend to hold commonly accepted norms, attitudes, and stereotypes that they enforce on current and new members, and which can lead to similar behaviours, such as smoking (Esiri, 2016). However, regarding sexual assault and rape, potential perpetrators may have greater motivation to offend if they are in proximity to peers

who accept negative attitudes towards sex or if they have contact with individuals who are sexual offenders. Franklin, Bouffard and Pratt (2012) found in their study of college students in the US, that males who report sexual abusive behaviours were more likely to be attached to peers who had already been emotionally and physically abusive to women. Moreover, Schwartz et al (2001), found in a survey of 3,142 individuals that sexually abusive peers actively encouraged the male participants who had reported perpetrating sexual assault. Feminist theorists would suggest that peer groups where sexually abusive behaviour and attitudes are accepted due to a male group's need to assert male dominance over women and effeminate men would justify the sexual abuse of homosexual men (Falberg & Pepper, 2016). However, Kilmartin, Smith, Green, Heinzen, Kuchler and Kolar (2008), suggest that men actually overestimate the sexist and sexual abusive behaviours of their peers and therefore try to conform to the perceived norms of their group instead of the actual norms reflected among their peers. As such, sexually abusive peer influence has also been found to have a high correlation rate with other incorrect and negative beliefs against women, such as rape myth acceptance (Franklin et al., 2012; Schwartz et al., 2001).

Being among peers who accept sexual abuse or have sexually abused in the past can therefore potentially be a factor that could increase the motivation of a potential offender to commit sexual assault or rape. The normalisation of sexually abusive attitudes as a result of peer influence would allow offenders to justify their actions and allow motivation to attack a potential victim when the opportunity arises (Franklin et al., 2012; Schwartz et al., 2001). However, one of the main issues with the current research into negative peer influence is that they only focus on male peer influence due to the idea that it is a by-product of male dominance and therefore ignores negative female peer influence (Franklin et al., 2012; Schwartz et al., 2001). Identifying the relationship between peer pressure, negative peer influence and sexual assault/rape victimisation/perpetration will help better inform awareness and intervention strategies.

Pornography

Pornography is defined in this project as the viewing of explicit videos, images and stories depicting acts of sex either viewed online or in another form of media. Since the accessibility of pornography has become easier through the development of online services and devices that can connect to the internet, the popularity of pornography has increased among younger populations. For example, Foubert, Brosi and Bannon (2011) found that 83% of fraternity men

studied admitted to using pornography and Caroll et al., (2008) found that 83% of men and 31% of women had used pornography in their study to identify pornography acceptance and use among young, emerging adults.

As pornographic material is popular in modern society, researchers have been interested in determining the possible negative effects that viewing pornography can have, including the extent that pornography could be a contributing factor to sexual victimisation. Even though the internet can be used as a healthy expression of sexuality with the formation of positive online communities and communities for minority sexualities to find romantic partners (Cooper, Delmonico & Burg, 2000), research suggests several negative effects that result from pornography consumption. Firstly, there is the potential that pornography consumption could foster attitudes that objectify women as a result of the way that women are depicted in a large amount of pornographic content (Ferguson & Hartley, 2009; Kernsmith & Kernsmith, 2009). For example, a large proportion of explicit videos and images online only portray women as objects of sexual gratification for men, and even though the majority of pornographic material depicts consensual encounters (Ferguson & Hartley, 2009), young men and women who watch pornography may normalise how women are treated within explicit content. Moreover, pornographic material does not usually reflect real life sexual encounters and can therefore create an unrealistic expectation of sex (Kernsmith & Kernsmith, 2009). For example, sexual scenarios depicted within pornography tend to portray women and men as 'ready' for sexual intercourse at any time or that they are up for trying any sexual act no matter how unique or taboo (Cooper et al., 2000). Therefore, exposure to pornography could allow an individual to believe that these unrealistic scenarios are how their own personal sexual encounters should play out, which could lead to a number of issues, such as disappointment or inappropriate requests from partners.

In relation to the RAT, pornography could increase someone's vulnerability to become a sexual assault or rape victim due to the normalisation of violent sexual behaviour (Foubert et al., 2011). Franklin (2013) suggests that those that watch pornography, those that have a higher acceptance of rape myths and those that are more likely to accept traditional gender roles are less likely to recognise danger cues as they develop sexual scripts that normalise violent behaviour. Therefore, individuals who watch pornography may find themselves in situations that they do not realise are dangerous until it is too late due to the normalisation of behaviours shown in explicit material. This is especially true for those that watch 'hard-core', 'sadomasochistic' or pornography that depicts rape as they are more likely to accept and

normalise more violent behaviours (Franklin, 2013; Malamuth, Hald & Koss, 2012). Additionally, research suggests that there is a strong relationship between watching pornography and other risky sexual practices that have been related to higher sexual assault and rape victimisation, such as higher consensual sexual partners (Caroll et al., 2008; Franklin, 2013; Ferguson & Hartley, 2009). Therefore, the presence of other risk factors combined with viewing explicit material could explain an increase in vulnerability.

The viewing of explicit pornographic material has also been found to potentially increase the motivation of perpetrators of sexual violence. The normalisation of behaviours that reduce the value of women to singular sex objects and the unrealistic sexual scenarios that are present in pornography could educate potential perpetrators that unhealthy sexual behaviours are acceptable. For example, men who watch explicit material that depict women who initially refuse sex, but inevitably give in may believe that this is a normal sexual encounter. Moreover, those who watch 'hard-core', 'sadomasochistic' or pornography that depicts rape (Malamuth et al., 2012) will normalise more extreme sexual behaviours and may try to engage in these actions with others. Evidence from past research has identified that pornography use is related to more negative attitudes towards women (Carroll et al., 2008; Foubert et al., 2011), higher rape myth acceptance (Foubert et al., 2011; Malamuth et al., 2012) and higher acceptance of violence towards women (Foubert et al., 2011; Ferguson & Hartley, 2009). Foubert et al. (2011), in their investigation of fraternity men and pornography use found that those who reported mainstream pornography use were significantly more likely to report a higher likelihood that they would commit sexual assault or rape if they could guarantee they would not be caught. Additionally, there is some evidence that women who perpetrate sexual coercion against men and other women are significantly more likely to watch explicit pornographic material (Kernsmith & Kernsmith, 2009).

There are a number of arguments that suggest how pornography consumption can increase the vulnerability of potential victims or motivation of perpetrators to sexual assault or rape, as well as evidence to relate pornography consumption to negative attitudes and behaviours surrounding sexual experiences. However, there are a number of issues surrounding the current research into pornography and sexual assault and rape victimisation. Firstly, in their review of the history of past research into the effect of aggressive vs non-aggressive pornography on rape and sexual assault Ferguson and Hartley (2009) concluded that the evidence that pornography had a significant effect on sexual assault and rape victimisation was sporadic and as a result they suggest that pornography may not be a viable risk factor, although

these findings are now 11 years old and may be inaccurate. Moreover, except from a handful of studies, the vast majority of studies concerning pornography and sexual assault and rape perpetration is conducted with male participants and therefore do not fully account for female perpetrators (Kernsmith & Kernsmith, 2009). Additionally, both victimisation and perpetration studies investigating pornography as a risk factor either solely concentrate on student samples or fraternity samples (Foubert et al., 2011; Ferguson & Hartley, 2009). Comparisons between student and non-student samples/ different student groups are needed to identify the true effect that pornography has on assault and rape victimisation/perpetration.

Rape Myths

Originally phrased in 1980, Burt described a rape myth as a 'prejudicial, stereotypical, or false belief about rape, rape victims and rapists' (Burt, 1980, p.217). Simply put a rape myth is a belief that excuses the actions of perpetrators of sexual assault and rape and instead shifts the blame onto the victim of the assault. Rape myths that are accepted tend to focus on the victim lying about the encounter, that they actually wanted the sexual contact through their actions even if they said no or the offender being unable to determine whether the alleged victim was not consenting due to their behaviour. Examples of the types of rape myths concerning women who are raped include beliefs such as 'the perpetrator didn't mean to do it', 'the women lied about being raped' or 'the woman asked for it (Payne, Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1999). These overall topics can then interact with other factors to create excuses for the behaviours of potential perpetrators. Overall, there is a rich plethora of previous research that shows that individuals in society do accept rape myths to certain a degree. Moreover, there is evidence that there is a greater propensity for males to accept a higher level of rape myths than females (reviewed in Hockett, Smith, Klausing & Saucier, 2016). For example, Geiger, Fischer and Eshet (2004), found in their investigation of rape myths amongst a student population in Israel, that close to one third of all their participants accepted higher levels of rape myths, with up to 49% of male participants reducing the seriousness of negative sexual encounters compared to 13.1% of female participants. Investigations that compare rape myth acceptance in different countries show that this level of acceptance is also reflected in numerous societies, such as the USA, Japan, and India (Stephens et al., 2016). Due to the acceptance of rape myths by some individuals, research suggests that these beliefs can have a negative impact of a number of functions in society. For example, acceptance of these myths has found to be related to bias in jury decision making processes (Willmott, Boduszek, Debowska & Woodfield, 2018).

However, one important question relates to how the acceptance of rape myths link to sexual assault and rape perpetration. The acceptance of one or more rape myths could result in an individual developing cognitive distortions that would affect how a potential offender would process information regarding what is acceptable sexual behaviour and would allow them to excuse and perpetrate unwanted sexual acts on women (Sussenbach, Eyssel & Bohner, 2013). In a systematic review, Yapp and Quayle (2018) found that there was a high association between rape myth acceptance and perpetrating self-reported sexual violence amongst six cross sectional studies processed in the review. A longitudinal study of male sexual aggression also found evidence that rape supportive attitudes were a predictor of reported aggression and significantly related to the pressure participants felt from peers to have sex (Thompson, Koss, Kingree, Goree & Rice, 2011). Therefore, evidence would suggest that rape myth acceptance could potentially be a significant predictor of perpetrating sexual violence. Prevention strategies focusing on rape myths have been found to be successful at tackling these maladaptive beliefs, although it has been suggested that they must be broadened to combat other oppressive attitudes (Suarez & Gadalla, 2010).

To measure the extent that someone accepts myths about rape a number of scales have been developed. These include Burt's original rape myth acceptance scale (Burt, 1980), the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance scale (IRMA; Payne et al., 1999) and the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression scale (AMMSA; Gerger, Kley, Bohner & Seibler, 2007). Even though each of these scales has been used in a number of studies investigating rape myths (Yapp & Quayle, 2018), each has been found to have a number of issues with the way that they aim to measure an individual's rape myth acceptance. The IRMA looks to measure a greater variety of myths, including specific categories, but has been criticised for the language it uses being out of date due to its age and the items on the measure being too direct and obvious with what they are trying to measure, which could potentially increase the likelihood of participants lying in their responses (Gerger et al., 2007; McMahon & Farmer, 2011). Moreover, the directness of the IRMA may also fail to detect rape myths that are more subtle or may lead to participant social desirability bias if they manage to guess what the scale is trying to measure. Contrarily, the AMMSA tries to take a subtler approach in its measures of rape myths (Gerger et al., 2007), although one major issue with the scale is that the language of some of the items is confusing and includes double negatives, which could potentially confuse younger participants when they are answering items on the scale. To improve the effectiveness of the IRMA McMahon and Farmer (2011) looked to improve the language and

'slang' used within the scale, as well as update the items themselves so that the validity of the scale in measuring subtler myths could be increased. Using focus groups and psychometric studies McMahon and Farmer (2011) tested, updated, and validated their improved IRMA scale through the development of five subscales relating to rape myth literature. This new and improved scale has been found to have high validity (Reling et al., 2018) and high concordance with other negative sexual belief factors, validating its effectiveness at successfully measuring rape myths.

Additional Risk Factors

Past research has indicated that individuals that socialise more in environments such as public houses, night clubs and house parties are at a higher risk of sexual assault victimisation (Franklin & Menaker, 2016). This is thought to be due to the high level of alcohol consumption in these environments (Abbey et al., 2007; Lorenz & Ullman, 2016), as well as the pressure that individuals can feel to try and find a sexual or romantic partner while they are out socialising (Franklin, 2010). For example, socialising in clubs, pubs and at house parties can potentially increase the vulnerability of potential sexual assault victims due to the presence of risk factors that are commonly associated with these types of environments. Additionally, sexual assault behaviours that are seen as relatively minor, such as groping, touching or rubbing may be seen as 'normal' behaviours for these situations (Camp et al., 2018). Therefore, the normalisation of these behaviours could prevent those who become victims of sexual assault from reporting their experiences to either the authorities or staff of the venue where it occurs. Moreover, motivated offenders may see venues that promote factors which can increase a victim's vulnerability as a potential hunting ground for their next victim (Fisher & Cullen., 2000). As the young adult population in the UK is known to frequent social venues, such as pubs and clubs (Parker & Williams, 2003), it is important to see the relationship between the frequency that an individual attends these venues and their sexual assault and rape victimisation/perpetration experiences. If a relationship is found between victimisation/perpetration experiences and socialising behaviours, then further investigation can be conducted to explain this relationship and help to create strategies that will help protect potential victims without stopping them from socialising.

Finally, another factor that will be explored to determine victimisation risk among the student population is the year of study that the student is currently in. Similar to the age variable in chapter 2, students who are younger and are in an earlier year have been found to be more

vulnerable to sexual crimes than those in later university years. This is generally thought to be due to the attractiveness of first year university students, both in regard to physical attractiveness as with younger people generally (Felson & Cundiff, 2014), but also with their innate attractiveness as a target due to their inexperience and general behaviour (Franklin & Menaker, 2016). Young students who enter university for their first year tend to drink a higher amount of alcohol (Abbey et al., 2007) and socialise more in high-risk venues, such as pubs, clubs, and house parties (Parker & Williams, 2003). Due to a first-year students lack of experience in either living on their own or going out in a university setting, they may be much less likely to understand situations that are dangerous and could lead to potential sexual assault or rape experiences, such as the inability to recognise 'danger cues' while they are socialising with strangers (Franklin, 2010). Moreover, social events that are specifically arranged to welcome first year university students, such as 'fresher's week' or pub crawls, could lead to situations that specifically put individuals as risk of sexual victimisation, either due to sexualised advertisements or expectations of sexual contact (Phipps & Young, 2015). To confirm the relationship between student year sexual victimisation, this variable will be measured. These results can then be further explored to develop awareness strategies to help protect first year students from negative sexual experiences.

4.2 Aim, Objectives, and Hypotheses

The main aim of this chapter is to explore the potential risk factors that may increase sexual assault and rape among a young sample in the UK. This included factors that could potentially increase the risk of victimisation and those that may lead to the motivation of perpetrators. This has been done to test previous findings that have been found in past research, identify relationships between these factors and victimisation which has been done to a lesser extent in the UK compared to the US and other countries, as well as compare findings from student and non-student samples to determine the difference between these groups.

4.2.1 Chapter objectives:

- To identify the overall differences between reported risk factor attitudes/behaviours and participant employment to determine whether students engage in a higher level of risk behaviour.
- To identify the differences between recorded participant risk factor attitudes and behaviours between victims and non-victims or perpetrators and non-perpetrators relating to each category (Victim or perpetrator).

- To test the predictive power of identified significant factors when accounting for the variance between reported victims and non-victims or perpetrators and non-perpetrators.

Through the exploration of previous literature, a number of predictions can be made in regard to the differences that will be tested between victimisation/perpetration rates and risk factor analysis.

4.2.2 Chapter Hypotheses

- There will be a difference between reported participant employment categories and their recorded level of risk factor behaviour.
- Younger university students will show a significantly higher level of overall risk than older, non-university students.
- Reported victims will show a significantly higher level of behavioural and attitudinal risk than non-victims in relation to factors that have been suggested to increase victim vulnerability.
- Reported perpetrators will show a significantly higher level of cognitive distortion in relation to factors that have been suggested to increase perpetrator motivation.
- Including significant victimisation risk factors in a regression analysis, along with significant demographic variables, will significantly improve the predictive power of the model in explaining the variance between victim and non-victim sample groups.

4.3 Chapter Method

Sample

Overall, 340 participants completed the risk factor section of the questionnaire. Participants were aged between 18- 30 (M= 23.18, SD= 3.65). There were 129 participants aged between 18-21, 119 aged between 22-25 and 92 aged between 26-30. The vast majority of participants were female (83.5%, N=284), with males only making up 15% of the sample (N=51). Three participants reported their gender as transgender, and 2 reported their gender as A-gender. However, as there was only a small number of participants with these genders they were removed from analysis. Overall, the highest sexuality reported in the sample was heterosexual (75.6%, N=257) followed by bisexual (16.5%, N=56) and homosexual (4.7%, N=16). Again, a small number of participants reported an alternative sexuality (Fluid=1, asexual=2,

pansexual=5, demi sexual=1 and not sure=1), but these were removed from analysis due to their small number.

The majority of participants reported themselves as single/never been married (47.4%, N=161) followed by partnered/never been married (40.9%, N=139) and married/domestic partnership (10.6%, N=36). Two participants were reported as separated and 1 was recorded as divorced, although due to small numbers these were omitted from analysis. In regard to employment, the majority of participants were employed (34.7%, N=118), followed by undergraduate students (32.6%, N=111), postgraduate students (20.3%, N=69) and 'other' students (9.1%, N=31). Ten participants reported themselves as unemployed and 1 was currently involved in an apprenticeship. However, because numbers for these employments were low, they were omitted from analysis.

Materials

To complete this chapter's data analysis, participant responses for demographics, the SES-R, previous sexual history, bar/club social behaviour, pornography consumption, hook-up behaviour, social media use, rape myths, peer pressure and negative peer sexual advice were used from the quantitative questionnaire as outlined in Chapter 2.

4.4 Chapter 4 Results

4.4.1 Prevalence

Table 22 and Table 23 show the 12-month victimisation and relevant strategy used prevalence figures for participants who completed all risk factor sections of the questionnaire, as well as victimisation figures by demographic, whereas Table 24 shows the same information by reported perpetration prevalence in the last 12 months. As there were no self-reported perpetrators of attempted rape or rape in this sample, these categories were not analysed. As with the previous chapter, participant reported experience for individual assault and rape victimisation/perpetration experiences may not match the overall victimisation figure due to participants reporting multiple experiences.

4.4.2 Risk Factors

To identify differences between the reported victimisation and perpetration prevalence and reported engagement in risk factor attitudes and behaviours, a number of inferential tests were first conducted to identify significance. However, inferential tests were only conducted when the data set met the tests assumptions. In regard to chi-square analysis, tests were only conducted if 80% of data cells had a value of 5 or more or it did not undergo inferential analysis. However, if the majority of cells had a large sample size but the data did not meet this assumption then a Fisher's Exact Test was conducted instead.

Table 22 – Prevalence of Sexual Assault, Attempted Rape and Completed Rape by Intoxication Victimisation within the Last 12 Months by Demographic

	Type of Sexual Assault/Rape Victimisation Strategy Used					
	Sexual Contact - Intoxication		*Attempted Rape- Intoxication*		*Completed Rape - Intoxication*	
	Victim	*Non-victim*	Victim	*Non-victim*	Victim	*Non-victim*
Variable						
Overall:	*54 (16.1)*	*281 (83.9)*	*28 (8.3)*	*311 (91.7)*	*31 (9.1)*	*308 (90.9)*
Gender*:						
Male	5 (9.8)	*46 (90.2)*	*3 (5.9)*	*48 (94.1)*	*3 (5.9)*	*48 (94.1)*
Female	48 (17.2)	*231 (82.8)*	*25 (8.8)*	*258 (91.2)*	*28 (9.9)*	*255 (90.1)*
Employment*:						
Employed	13 (11.2)	*103 (88.8)*	*8 (6.8)*	*110 (93.2)*	*8 (6.8)*	*110 (93.2)*
Undergrad Student	28 (25.5)	*82 (74.5)*	*14 (12.6)*	*97 (87.4)*	*14 (12.6)*	*97 (87.4)*
Postgraduate Student	5 (7.4)	*63 (92.6)*	*3 (4.4)*	*65 (95.6)*	*4 (5.9)*	*64 (94.1)*
Student (Other)	5 (16.7)	*25 (83.3)*	*1 (3.2)*	*30 (96.8)*	*2 (6.5)*	*29 (93.5)*
Marital Status:*						
Single/NM	34 (21.2)	*126 (78.8)*	*20 (12.4)*	*141 (87.6)*	*23 (14.3)*	*138 (85.7)*
Partnered/NM	19 (13.9)	*118 (86.1)*	*8 (5.8)*	*130 (94.2)*	*8 (5.8)*	*130 (94.2)*
Married/Domestic	1 (2.9)	*34 (97.1)*	*0 (0)*	*36 (100)*	*0 (0)*	*36 100)*
Age: M (SD)	21.81 (3.26)	*23.44 (3.67)*	*21.00 (2.18)*	*23.38 (3.70)*	*22.03 (3.15)*	*23.30 (3.69)*

**Figures are presented as number of reported victims with the percentage of the demographic group in brackets (%)*

Previous Sexual History, Hook Up Attitudes, Socialising in bars/clubs and Dating Behaviours

Table 25 shows reported previous sexual behaviour, hook-up attitudes and socialisation figures by participant employment and reported victimisation prevalence. When inferential chi-square analysis was conducted to determine the difference between victims and non-victims in regard to whether participants had reported engaging in consensual sex previously or not, there were

no significant differences between victims and non-victims of the majority of sexual assault and rape types and whether they had reported previous consensual sexual experiences. However, those who had reported as never engaging in consensual sex before (Std=-1.9) were significantly less likely to report completed rape by intoxication victimisation $X^2(1) = 4.56$, $P<0.05$, and those who had never engaged in consensual sex before were also significantly less likely (Std Res=-1.8) to report unwanted sexual contact by intoxication $X^2(1)=4.15$, $P<0.05$. Moreover, employed participants (Std Res= -2.2) were significantly less likely and student's 'other' (Std Res= 1.7) were significantly more likely to report having no previous consensual sexual experiences in their past $X^2(3) = 11.26$, $P=0.01$.

In regard to participants reported number of overall consensual sexual partners, Table 25 shows that victims seemed to have a higher number of consensual sexual partners than non-victims for all sexual assault types. After initial analysis it was found that the number of consensual partner data did not meet the assumptions of normality, both through analysis of the Q-Q plots and a significant Kolmogorov-Smirnov test ($D (286)=0.25=$, $P=0.00$). However, due to the central limit theorem, which suggests that data with large samples will be normally distributed through the population if enough smaller samples were taken and their means analysed, a parametric independent samples t-test was conducted to identify the difference between victims and non-victims of each type of sexual assault in regard to the number of consensual sexual partners they have had. For those who had reported at least some type of victimisation in overall victimisation, a Levene's test for homogeneity of variance ($p=0.00$) shows that variances were not equal between the two populations, meaning that a correction needed to be made. Those who reported at least one type of victimisation were found to have significantly higher reported consensual sexual partners than those that did not report any type of victimisation $t(123.74) = -2.03$, $p<0.05$ [CI 95%; -5.23 to -0.39], with a small effect size (Cohen's $d= 0.35$). After correcting for unequal variances (Levene's Test; $p<0.01$) it was found that those who had reported sexual contact victimisation were significantly more likely to have a higher number of consensual sexual partners than non-victims $t(105.03) =-2.01$, $p<0.05$ [CI 95%: -5.28 to -0.4], with a small effect size (Cohen's $d= 0.33$). Those who had reported rape victimisation were also significantly more likely to report a higher number of consensual sexual partners than non-victims $t(37.88) =-2.188$, $p<0.05$ [CI 95%: -10.68 to -0.41], with a medium effect size (Cohen's $d= 0.69$), after correcting for unequal variances (Levene's test; $p=0.00$). After making the appropriate corrections for unequal variances ($p=0.00$), reported victims of completed rape by intoxication were significantly more likely to have a higher number of

reported previous consensual sexual partners than non-victims t(30.92)=-2.22, p<0.05 [CI 95%: -12.72 to -0.54], with a large effect (Cohen's d= 0.85). Even with correcting for unequal variances, no significant difference was found for the number of consensual sexual partners between victims and non-victims of attempted coercion t(27.92)=-1.43,p>0.05 (Levene's test; p<0.01), coercion t(25.96)=-1.53,p>0.05 (Levene's test; p=0.55), attempted rape t(34.64)=-1.86,p>0.05 (Levene's test; p=0.00), sexual contact by intoxication t(58.09)=-1.62,p>0.05 (Levene's test; p=0.00), attempted rape by intoxication t(27.84)=-1.70,p>0.05 (Levene's test; p=0.00).

Table 23 – Prevalence of Sexual Assault Victimisation within the Last 12 Months by Demographic

	Type of Sexual Assault Victimisation											
	Overall Victimisation		*Sexual Contact*		*Attempted Coercion*		*Coercion*		*Attempted Rape*		*Rape*	
	Victim	*Non-victim*	Victim	*Non-victim*	Victim	*Non-victim*	Victim	*Non-victim*	Victim	*Non-victim*	Victim	*Non-victim*
Variable												
Overall:	*104 (30.6)*	*236 (69.4)*	*90 (26.5)*	*250 (73.5)*	*33 (9.7)*	*306 (90.3)*	*28 (8.2)*	*312 (91.8)*	*36 (10.6)*	*304 (89.4)*	*40 (11.8)*	*300 (88.2)*
Gender*:												
Male	9 (17.6)	*42 (82.4)*	9 (17.6)	*42 (82.4)*	*4 (7.8)*	*47 (92.2)*	*1 (2)*	*50 (98)*	*4 (7.8)*	*47 (92.2)*	*3 (5.9)*	*48 (94.1)*
Female	93 (32.7)	*191 (67.3)*	*79 (27.8)*	*205 (72.2)*	*29 (10.2)*	*254 (89.8)*	*27 (9.5)*	*257 (90.5)*	*32 (11.3)*	*252 (88.7)*	*37 (13)*	*247 (87)*
Employment*:												
Employed	30 (25.4)	*88 (74.6)*	*24 (20.3)*	*94 (79.7)*	*10 (8.5)*	*108 (91.5)*	*10 (8.5)*	*108 (91.5)*	*12 (10.2)*	*106 (89.8)*	*12 (10.2)*	*106 (89.8)*
Undergrad Student	47 (42.3)	*64 (57.7)*	*43 (38.7)*	*68 (61.3)*	*11 (9.9)*	*100 (90.1)*	*7 (6.3)*	*104 (93.7)*	*17 (15.3)*	*94 (84.7)*	*17 (15.3)*	*94 (84.7)*
Postgraduate Student	14 (20.3)	*55 (79.7)*	*10 (14.5)*	*59 (85.5)*	*6 (8.8)*	*62 (91.2)*	*6 (8.7)*	*63 (91.3)*	*4 (5.8)*	*65 (94.2)*	*6 (8.7)*	*63 (91.3)*
Student (Other)	9 (29)	*22 (71)*	*9 (29)*	*22 (71)*	*4 (12.9)*	*27 (87.1)*	*2 (6.5)*	*29 (93.5)*	*1 (3.2)*	*30 (96.8)*	*2 (6.5)*	*29 (93.5)*
Marital Status:*												
Single/NM	65 (40.4)	*96 (59.6)*	*53 (32.9)*	*108 (67.1)*	*21 (13)*	*140 (87)*	*16 (9.9)*	*145 (90.1)*	*23 (14.3)*	*138 (85.7)*	*27 (16.8)*	*134 (83.2)*
Partnered/NM	34 (24.5)	*105 (75.5)*	*32 (23)*	*107 (77)*	*9 (6.5)*	*129 (93.5)*	*8 (5.8)*	*131 (94.2)*	*11 (7.9)*	*128 (92.1)*	*11 (7.9)*	*128 (92.1)*
Married/Domestic	3 (8.3)	*33 (91.7)*	*3 (8.3)*	*33 (91.7)*	*2 (5.6)*	*34 (94.4)*	*3 (8.3)*	*33 (91.7)*	*2 (5.6)*	*34 (94.4)*	*2 (5.6)*	*34 (94.4)*
Age: M (SD)	22 (3.09)	*23.70 (3.76)*	*21.92 (3.16)*	*23.63 (3.72)*	*21.97 (2.92)*	*23.31 (3.71)*	*22.71 (2.83)*	*23.22 (3.72)*	*21.61 (2.76)*	*23.37 (3.70)*	*22.33 (3.20)*	*23.29 (3.70)*

**Figures are presented as number of reported victims with the percentage of the demographic group in brackets (%)*

Table 24 – Prevalence of Sexual Assault Perpetration within the Last 12 Months by Demographic

	Type of Sexual Assault Perpetration											
	Overall Perpetration		*Sexual Contact*		*Attempted Coercion*		*Coercion*		*Attempted Rape*		*Rape*	
	Perp**	*Non-Perp***	Perp**	*Non-Perp***	Perp**	*Non-Perp***	Perp**	*Non-Perp***	Perp**	*Non-Perp***	Perp**	*Non-Perp***
Variable												
Gender*:												
Male	*6 (11.8)*	*45 (88.2)*	*5 (9.8)*	*46 (90.2)*	*1 (2)*	*50 (98)*	*1 (2)*	*50 (98)*	*0 (0)*	*51 (100)*	*0 (0)*	*51 (100)*
Female	*11 (3.9)*	*272 (96.1)*	*10 (3.5)*	*273 (96.5)*	*2 (0.7)*	*280 (99.3)*	*2 (0.7)*	*280 (99.3)*	*0 (0)*	*282 (100)*	*0 (0)*	*282 (100)*
Employment*:												
Employed	*5 (4.2)*	*113 (95.8)*	*5 (4.2)*	*113 (95.8)*	*0 (0)*	*118 (100)*	*1 (0.8)*	*117 (99.2)*	*0 (0)*	*118 (100)*	*0 (0)*	*118 (100)*
Undergrad Student	*3 (2.7)*	*107 (97.3)*	*2 (1.8)*	*108 (98.2)*	*1 (0.9)*	*109 (99.1)*	*1 (0.9)*	*109 (99.1)*	*0 (0)*	*110 (100)*	*0 (0)*	*110 (100)*
Postgraduate Student	*5 (7.2)*	*64 (92.8)*	*5 (7.2)*	*64 (92.8)*	*2 (2.9)*	*67 (97.1)*	*1 (1.4)*	*68 (98.6)*	*0 (0)*	*69 (100)*	*0 (0)*	*69 (100)*
Student (Other)	*2 (6.5)*	*29 (93.5)*	*2 (6.5)*	*29 (93.5)*	*0 (0)*	*30 (100)*	*0 (0)*	*30 (100)*	*0 (0)*	*30 (100)*	*0 (0)*	*30 (100)*
Marital Status:*												
Single/NM	*8 (5)*	*153 (95)*	*7 (4.3)*	*154 (95.7)*	*0 (0)*	*161 (100)*	*1 (0.6)*	*160 (99.4)*	*0 (0)*	*161 (100)*	*0 (0)*	*161 (100)*
Partnered/NM	*5 (3.6)*	*133 (96.4)*	*4 (2.9)*	*134 (97.1)*	*1 (0.7)*	*136 (99.3)*	*0 (0)*	*137 (100)*	*0 (0)*	*137 (100)*	*0 (0)*	*137 (100)*
Married/Domestic	*3 (8.3)*	*33 (91.7)*	*3 (8.3)*	*33 (91.7)*	*2 (5.6)*	*34 (94.4)*	*1 (2.8)*	*35 (97.2)*	*0 (0)*	*36 (100)*	*0 (0)*	*36 (100)*
Age: M (SD)	*24.06 (3.49)*	*23.14 (3.66)*	*24.40 (3.46)*	*23.13 (3.70)*	*26 (3.46)*	*23.16 (3.66)*	*24.33 (4.73)*	*23.17 (3.66)*	*N/A*	*23.18 (3.66)*	*N/A*	*23.18 (3.66)*

**Figures are presented as number of reported perpetrators/non-perpetrators with the percentage of the demographic group in brackets (%)*
*** reported perpetration/non-perpetration*

Although data regarding consensual sexual age again violated the assumption of normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test; D(286)=0.19=, P=0.00), parametric t-tests were used due to the central limit theorem. After accounting for unequal variances where necessary, no significant difference was found with a participants reported age of first consensual sexual contact between victims and non-victims of overall sexual victimisation t(296)=0.62,p>0.05 (Levene's test; p=0.12), sexual contact t(296)=-0.66,p>0.05 (Levene's test; p=0.19), attempted coercion t(295)=-.40,p>0.05 (Levene's test; p=0.20), coercion t(296)=-0.79,p>0.05 (Levene's test; p=0.59), attempted rape t(296)=0.76,p>0.05 (Levene's test; p=0.14), rape t(296)=-0.81,p>0.05 (Levene's test; p=0.13), sexual contact by intoxication t(291)=-0.31,p>0.05 (Levene's test; p=0.12), attempted rape by intoxication t(295)=.72,p>0.05 (Levene's test; p=0.06) and completed rape by intoxication t(295)=.70,p>0.05 (Levene's test; p=0.30).

Table 25 also shows participant response to the question regarding how much they engage in social behaviours in bars and clubs. Data regarding participant social behaviours in bar and clubs again violated the assumption of normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test; D(340)=0.17=, P=0.00), although parametric t-tests were again chosen to determine differences between victims and non-victims and their social behaviours due to the central limit theorem. Table 26 shows that victims reported higher mean indication of socialising in bars and clubs for each victimisation type compared to non-victims. After being submitted to a Levene's test of homogeneity of variance, assumptions of homogeneity of variance were met for reported overall victimisation (p=0.83), sexual contact victimisation (p=0.60), attempted coercion victimisation (p=0.16), coercion victimisation (p=0.73), attempted rape victimisation (p=0.97), rape victimisation (p=0.85), sexual contact by intoxication (p=0.33), attempted rape by intoxication (p=0.31) and completed rape by intoxication (p=0.72). After t-test analysis, participants who had reported experiencing some sort of sexual victimisation were significantly more likely to report a higher level of social behaviour in bars and clubs than non-victims t(338)=-4.20,p=0.00 [CI 95%: -0.27 to -0.73], with a medium effect size (Cohen's d=-0.5). Reported victims were also significantly more likely to report higher levels of socialising in bars and clubs compared to non-victims for sexual contact t(338)=-4.16,p=0.00 [CI 95%: -0.76 to -0.27], with a medium effect size (Cohen's d=-0.51), attempted coercion t(337)=-2.28,p=<0.05 [CI 95%: -0.80 to -0.06], with a small effect size (Cohen's d=0.42), attempted rape t(338)=-3.65,p=0.00 [CI 95%: -1.01 to -0.30], with a medium effect size (Cohen's d=-0.64), sexual contact by intoxication t(333)=-3.58,p=0.00 [CI 95%: -.84 to -.24], with a medium effect (Cohen's d=-0.54, attempted rape by intoxication t(337)=-3.99,p=0.00 [CI

95%: -1.19 to -.41], with a medium to large effect (Cohen's d=-0.79) and completed rape by intoxication t(337)=-2.78,p<0.05 [CI 95%: -0.87 to -0.11], with a small to medium effect (Cohen's d=-0.46). There was no significant difference found between the reported social event behaviour between victims and non-victims of coercion t(338)=-0.31,p>0.05 or rape t(338)=-1.84,p>0.05. A one-way ANOVA allowed the difference between reported social event behaviours by participant employment to be tested. Homogeneity of variance was not violated through a Levene's test (p=0.55), therefore corrected tests were not needed. Overall, there was no significant difference found between participant employment and their reported social event behaviours F(3,325)=2.42,P>0.05.

Table 25 – Descriptive Statistics for Previous Sexual History, Socialisation and Hook-up Questions by Reported Victimisation

	Variables Measured								
Type of Sexual Assault:	Previous Sexual History				Socialisation	Hook-Up Behaviours			
	Consensual Sex?		Number of ConSex Partners	Age of first ConSex Experience	Socialise in Bar/Club's	Question 1**	Question 2**	Question 3**	Question 4**
	Yes (N)	No(N)	M (SD)	M(SD)	M(SD)	M(SD)	M(SD)	M(SD)	M(SD)
Overall Perpetration									
Victim	96	8	7.90 (11.17)	16.61 (1.83)	3.29 (1.02)	2.61 (1.40)	1.73 (1.06)	2.63 (1.37)	3.71 (1.43)
Non-Victim	204	32	5.08 (6.39)	16.81 (2.81)	2.79 (1.01)	1.97 (1.24)	1.47 (0.97)	2.69 (1.27)	3.58 (1.38)
Sexual Contact									
Victim	83	7	7.88 (11.51)	16.58 (1.84)	3.32 (1.02)	2.64 (1.42)	1.73 (1.08)	2.69 (1.33)	3.79 (1.39)
Non-Victim	217	33	5.22 (6.52)	16.80 (2.76)	2.80 (1.01)	1.99 (1.25)	1.48 (0.97)	2.67 (1.30)	3.56 (1.40)
Attempted Coercion									
Victim	31	2	10.07 (16.61)	16.93 (1.72)	3.33 (1.14)	2.85 (1.42)	1.79 (1.02)	3.09 (1.42)	3.91 (1.44)
Non-Victim	268	38	5.54 (6.84)	16.73 (2.63)	2.90 (1.02)	2.08 (1.29)	1.52 (1.00)	2.63 (1.28)	3.59 (1.39)
Coercion									
Victim	26	2	8.75 (9.40)	16.36 (1.95)	3.00 (1.09)	2.54 (1.37)	1.89 (1.20)	3.00 (1.44)	3.57 (1.42)
Non-Victim	274	38	5.72 (8.13)	16.78 (2.60)	2.93 (1.03)	2.13 (1.32)	1.52 (1.00)	2.64 (1.28)	3.62 (1.40)
Attempted Rape									
Victim	35	1	10.32 (15.20)	16.42 (1.60)	3.53 (1.00)	2.69 (1.26)	1.72 (0.82)	2.72 (1.52)	3.92 (1.32)
Non-Victim	265	39	5.41 (6.80)	16.78 (2.64)	2.87 (1.02)	2.10 (1.32)	1.53 (1.02)	2.67 (1.27)	3.58 (1.40)
Rape									
Victim	39	1	10.84 (15.23)	16.44 (1.60)	3.22 (0.97)	2.60 (1.46)	1.80 (1.09)	2.63 (1.35)	3.93 (1.35)
Non-Victim	261	39	5.29 (6.57)	16.79 (2.66)	2.90 (1.04)	2.10 (1.29)	1.52 (0.99)	2.68 (1.29)	3.58 (1.40)
Sexual Contact – Intox									
Victim	52	2	7.96 (13.33)	16.86 (1.68)	3.41 (.88)	2.70 (1.40)	1.76 (1.04)	2.44 (1.28)	3.85 (1.41)
Non-Victim	243	38	4.96 (6.60)	16.73 (2.71)	2.86 (1.04)	2.06 (1.29)	1.51 (.99)	2.71 (1.30)	3.58 (1.39)
Attempted Rape – Intox									
Victim	27	1	10.29 (16.30)	16.40 (1.35)	3.68 (.86)	2.82 (1.28)	1.71 (.76)	2.46 (1.37)	3.86 (1.27)
Non-Victim	272	39	4.99 (6.76)	16.79 (2.63)	2.88 (1.03)	2.10 (1.31)	1.54 (1.02)	2.69 (1.30)	3.60 (1.41)
Completed Rape - Intox									
Victim	31	0	11.45 (16.50)	16.45 (1.71)	3.39 (.92)	2.90 (1.51)	1.94 (1.18)	2.58 (1.41)	4.13 (1.26)
Non-Victim	268	40	4.82 (6.42)	16.79 (2.63)	2.90 (1.04)	2.08 (1.28)	1.51 (.98)	2.68 (1.29)	3.57 (1.40)
Employment									
Employed	112	6	8.32 (10.79)	16.44 (2.06)	3.04 (1.03)	1.95 (1.23)	1.40 (0.81)	2.78 (1.33)	3.75 (1.39)
Undergraduate Student	92	19	4.32 (5.91)	16.77 (2.47)	2.88 (0.97)	2.26 (1.34)	1.70 (1.95)	2.66 (1.24)	3.53 (1.38)
Postgraduate Student	61	8	5.62 (7.72)	17.43 (2.52)	3.13 (1.07)	2.25 (1.33)	1.55 (1.04)	2.59 (1.42)	3.43 (1.44)
Student (0ther)	24	7	3.62 (3.84)	16.52 (4.04)	3.42 (1.15)	2.30 (1.44)	1.43 (0.68)	2.45 (1.12)	3.60 (1.43)

**Figures are presented as number of reported victims with the percentage of the demographic group in brackets (%)*

***Question 1 -I like to go on many casual dates with a number of men/women; Question 2-I go out to social events with the sole purpose of engaging in sexual activity; Question 3-Social media sites are the best way to find a date; Question 4-If I have had sex with someone then I believe there is the possibility that we can have sex again, even if we are not together.*

Participants were asked to answer four questions relating to dating and hook-up behaviours. Initial analysis of these questions show that the data for all four violate the assumption of normality for this population; including question 1 (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test; D(338)=0.25=, P=0.00), question 2 (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test; D(338)=0.37=, P=0.00), question 3 (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test; D(338)=0.19=, P=0.00) and question 4 (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test; D(338)=0.26=, P=0.00). However, robust parametric tests, such as t-tests and ANOVA's, were still used due to the central limit theorem. In regards to question 1, which asked participants to agree to a statement on whether they like to go on multiple causal dates with partners, the assumption for homogeneity of variance found to be violated though a Levene's test within the overall victimisation category (p=0.00) and sexual contact category (p=0.01) and was met for attempted coercion (p=0.09), coercion (p=0.52), attempted rape (p=0.85), rape (p=0.10), sexual contact by intoxication (p=0.33), attempted rape by intoxication (p=91) and completed rape by intoxication (p=0.07). After correcting for equal variances where necessary, it was found that reported victims were significantly more likely to report higher agreement levels to going on many casual dates than non-victims for overall victimisation t(177.15)=-4.01,p=0.00 [CI 95%: -0.95 to -0.32], with a medium effect size (Cohen's d=-0.5), sexual contact t(141.74)=-3.89,p=0.00 [CI 95%: -0.99 to -0.32], with a medium effect size (Cohen's d=-0.5), attempted coercion t(336)=-3.21,p<0.01 [CI 95%: -1.24 to -0.30], with a medium effect size (Cohen's d=-0.59), attempted rape t(337)=-2.24,p<0.05 [CI 95%: -1.05 to -0.14], with a small to medium effect size (Cohen's d=-0.48), rape t(337)=-2.24,p<0.05 [CI 95%: -0.93 to -0.06], with a small effect size (Cohen's d=-0.38), sexual contact by intoxication t(332)=-3.32,p<0.01 [CI 95%: -1.02 to -0.26], with a small to medium effect (Cohen's d=-0.49), attempted rape by intoxication t(336)=-2.80,p<0.01 [CI 95%: -1.23 to -0.22], with a medium effect (Cohen's d=-0.55) and completed rape by intoxication t(336)=-3.35,p<0.01 [CI 95%: -1.30 to -0.34], with a medium effect (Cohen's d=-0.63). No significant difference was found on participant agreement to question 1 by reported coercion victimisation t(337)=-1.56,p>0.05. A one-way ANOVA revealed that there was no evidence of a significant difference of participant agreement to question 1 between the different reported participant employments F(3,324)=1.44,P>0.05.

Data for all sexual assault types were found to meet the assumption of homogeneity of variance through a Levene's test for question 2, which concerned participant's agreement of going to social events to specifically engage in sexual activity; including overall victimisation (p= 0.7), sexual contact (p=0.11), attempted coercion (p=0.43), coercion (p=0.06), attempted

rape (p=0.48) rape (p=0.24), sexual contact by intoxication (p=0.29), attempted rape by intoxication (p=0.38) and completed rape by intoxication (p=0.10). T-test analysis found evidence that reported victims were significantly more likely to report a higher acceptance to question 2's statement than non-victims for overall victimisation t(337)=-2.24,p<0.05 [CI 95%: -0.49 to -0.32], with a small effect size (Cohen's d=-0.2), sexual contact t(337)=-2.04,p<0.05 [CI 95%: -0.49 to -0.01], with a small effect size (Cohen's d=-0.2) and completed rape by intoxication t(336)=-2.25,p<0.01 [CI 95%: -0.79 to -0.05], with a small effect size (Cohen's d=-0.43). There was no evidence of a difference found between victims and non-victims of attempted coercion t(336)=-1.43,p>0.05, coercion t(337)=-1.90,p>0.05, attempted rape t(337)=-1.10,p>0.05, rape t(337)=-1.69,p>0.05, sexual contact by intoxication t(332)=-1.64,p>0.05 and attempted rape by intoxication t(336)=-.90,p>0.05. A one-way ANOVA revealed that there was no evidence of a significant difference of participant agreement to question 2 between the different reported participant employments F(3,324)=1.91,P>0.05.

As with question 2 for hook-up behaviours, a Levene's test found that question 3, which asks for participant agreement on whether social media sites are the best way to find a date, met the assumption for homogeneity of variance for each sexual assault type; including overall victimisation (p=0.29), sexual contact (p=0.74), attempted coercion (p=0.65), coercion (p=0.98), attempted rape (p=0.06), rape (p=0.78), sexual contact by intoxication (p=0.79), attempted rape by intoxication (p=.58) and completed rape by intoxication (p=0.37). A Levene's test also highlighted that this assumption was met for each sexual assault type for question 4, which asked for participant agreement surrounding the belief that there is a possibility that they can have sex with someone they have previously had sex with before; including overall victimisation (p=0.96), sexual contact (p=0.41), attempted coercion (p=0.73), coercion (p=0.55), attempted rape (p=0.27), rape (p=0.25), sexual contact by intoxication (p=0.43), attempted rape by intoxication (p=0.26) and completed rape by intoxication (p=0.10). Inferential t-tests found that there was no evidence of a significant difference of participant agreement to question 3 between reported victims and non-victims of overall victimisation t(338)=0.46,p>0.05, sexual contact t(338)=-.13,p>0.05, attempted coercion t(337)=-1.95,p>0.05, coercion t(338)=-1.39,p>0.05, attempted rape t(338)=-.24,p>0.05, rape t(338)=.25,p>0.05, sexual contact by intoxication t(333)=1.37,p>0.05, attempted rape by intoxication t(337)=.88,p>0.05 and completed rape by intoxication t(337)=0.41,p>0.05. T-tests conducted on the difference of participant agreement to question 4 between victims and non-victims also failed to find evidence of a significant difference for overall victimisation t(336)=-

.82,p>0.05, sexual contact t(336)=-1.35,p>0.05, attempted coercion t(335)=-1.26,p>0.05, coercion t(336)=.18,p>0.05, attempted rape t(336)=-1.36,p>0.05, rape t(336)=-1.48,p>0.05, sexual contact by intoxication t(331)=-1.32,p>0.05, attempted rape by intoxication t(335)=-.95,p>0.05. However, participants who reported higher acceptance to question 4 were significantly more likely to report completed rape by intoxication victimisation than those with a lower acceptance of question 4 t(335)=-2.15,p<0.05 [CI 95%: -1.08 to -0.05], with a small effect size (Cohen's d=-0.4). A one-way ANOVA analysis between different reported participant employments found no significance with their level of agreement to question 3 F(3,325)=.65,P>0.05 or question 4 F(3,323)=.89,P>0.05.

Online Dating Behaviours and Sexting

Table 26 shows reported engagement in online dating behaviours and sexting in relation to reported victimisation prevalence. Overall, there was a significant difference between reported victims and non-victims on whether they reported using a dating app or not $X^2(1)=11.83$, P<0.01 for overall victimisation. The direction of the significance shows that victims were significantly more likely to report having used a dating app before (Std Res = 2.0) in relation to non-victims (Std Res= -1.4), and significantly less likely to have never used a dating app (Std Res = -2.0) than non-victims. Similarly, this significant relationship was found with reported victims of sexual contact $X^2(1)=11.06$, P<0.01, with victims reporting that they had used a dating app significantly more (Std Res= 2.0) than non-victims (Std Res= -1.2), and significantly less likely to have never used a dating app (Std res = -2.0) than non-victims (Std Res= 1.2) of sexual contact. Victims were also significantly more likely to have used a dating app (Std Res = 1.4) and significantly less likely to have never used a dating app (Std Res = -1.4) if they had reported attempted coercion $X^2(1)=4.43$, P<0.05 and coercion victimisation $X^2(1)=4.15$, P<0.05. There were no differences between victim and non-victim reported app use and with sexual contact by intoxication, attempted rape, attempted rape by intoxication, rape and completed rape by intoxication reported victimisation. There was no significant difference found between participant employment and whether they have used an online dating app or website or not.

Table 26 – Descriptive Statistics for Online Dating Experiences by Victimisation

	Variables Measured									
Type of Sexual Assault:	Online Dating Behaviours						Sexting Behaviours			
	Used a Dating App/Website		Number of Apps/Websites used to find a Sexual Partner				Number of Participants who have had Experiences with Explicit Messages			
	Yes	No	0	1-2	3-4	5-6	Sent Only	Received Only	Both Sent/Received	No Experiences
Overall Victimisation										
Victim	66 (63.5)	38 (36.5)	38 (36.5)	60 (57.7)	6 (5.8)	N/A	1 (1)	14 (13.5)	73 (70.2)	16 (15.4)
Non-Victim	102 (43.2)	134 (56.8)	134 (56.8)	87 (36.9)	14 (5.9)	N/A	6 (2.6)	40 (17)	126 (53.6)	63 (26.3)
Sexual Contact										
Victim	58 (64.4)	32 (35.6)	32 (35.6)	52 (57.8)	6 (6.7)	N/A	1 (1.1)	12 (13.3)	63 (70)	14 (15.6)
Non-Victim	110 (44)	140 (56)	140 (56)	95 (38)	14 (5.6)	N/A	6 (2.4)	42 (16.9)	136 (54.6)	65 (26.1)
Attempted Coercion										
Victim	22 (66.7)	11 (33.3)	11 (33.3)	20 (60.6)	2 (6.1)	N/A	0 (0)	8 (24.2)	21 (63.6)	4 (12.1)
Non-Victim	145 (47.4)	161 (52.6)	161 (52.6)	126 (41.2)	18 (5.9)	N/A	7 (2.3)	46 (15.1)	177 (58)	75 (24.6)
Coercion										
Victim	19 (67.9)	9 (32.1)	9 (32.1)	18 (64.3)	1 (3.6)	N/A	0 (0)	6 (21.4)	19 (67.9)	3 (10.7)
Non-Victim	149 (47.8)	163 (52.2)	163 (52.2)	129 (41.3)	19 (6.1)	N/A	7 (2.3)	48 (15.4)	180 (57.9)	76 (24.4)
Attempted Rape										
Victim	21 (58.3)	15 (41.7)	15 (41.7)	19 (52.8)	2 (5.6)	N/A	0 (0)	6 (16.7)	26 (72.2)	4 (11.1)
Non-Victim	147 (48.4)	157 (51.6)	157 (51.6)	128 (42.1)	18 (5.9)	N/A	7 (2.3)	48 (15.8)	173 (57.1)	75 (24.8)
Rape										
Victim	25 (62.5)	15 (37.5)	15 (37.5)	22 (55)	3 (7.5)	N/A	1 (2.5)	6 (15)	31 (77.5)	2 (5)
Non-Victim	143 (47.7)	157 (52.3)	157 (52.3)	125 (41.7)	17 (5.7)	N/A	6 (2)	48 (16.1)	168 (56.2)	77 (25.8)
Sexual Contact – Intox										
Victim	32 (59.3)	22 (40.7)	22 (40.7)	28 (51.9)	4 (7.4)	N/A	1 (1.9)	8 (14.8)	37 (68.5)	8 (14.8)
Non-Victim	132 (47)	149 (53)	149 (53)	115 (40.9)	16 (5.7)	N/A	6 (2.1)	44 (15.7)	159 (56.8)	71 (25.4)
Attempted Rape – Intox										
Victim	15 (53.6)	13 (46.4)	13 (46.4)	14 (50)	1 (3.6)	N/A	0 (0)	4 (14.3)	21 (75)	3 (10.7)
Non-Victim	152 (48.9)	159 (51.1)	159 (51.1)	132 (42.4)	19 (6.1)	N/A	7 (2.3)	50 (16.1)	177 (57.1)	76 (24.5)
Completed Rape - Intox										
Victim	20 (64.5)	11 (35.5)	11 (35.5)	17 (54.8)	3 (9.7)	N/A	1 (3.2)	5 (16.1)	24 (77.4)	1 (3.2)
Non-Victim	147 (47.7)	161 (52.3)	161 (52.3)	129 (41.9)	17 (5.5)	N/A	6 (2)	49 (16)	174 (56.7)	78 (25.4)

*Results indicate number of reported victims/non-victims with percentages in brackets (%)

The data relating to participants using 5-6 dating apps was removed from analysis due to the low response rate of this category. In relation to the number of reported apps used by participants and its relationship with victimisation prevalence, overall, there was a significant difference between the number of apps used by those that reported at least one type of victimisation and non-victims $X^2(2)=13.07$, $P<0.01$. The direction of this relationship again shows that reported victims (Std Res= 2.2) were significantly more likely to use 1-2 dating apps than non-victims (Std Res= -1.5), as well a higher number of apps (e.g., 3-4). The same significant relationship was found for reported victims of sexual contact $X^2(3)=11.56$, $P<0.01$, with victims (Std Res= 2.1) reporting the use of 1-2 dating apps significantly more than non-victims (Std Res = -1.3) or using a higher number of apps There was no significant differences found between victims and non-victims and the number of apps they used for attempted coercion, coercion, sexual contact by intoxication, attempted rape, attempted rape by intoxication, rape and completed rape by intoxication reported victimisation. There was also a lack of significance found between participant employment and the number of dating apps used.

In regard to sexting behaviours, those that had reported rape victimisation in relation to their sexting behaviours $X^2(3)=9.31$, $P<0.05$. Those that reported rape victimisation in the past 12 months were significantly more likely to report that they had both sent and received an explicit message (Std Res= 1.6) and significantly less likely to report never having sent an explicit message (Std Res=-2.4). Due to the distribution of reported sexting behaviours by overall victimisation and completed rape by intoxication, a Fisher's Exact Test was conducted instead of the chi-square test. Those who reported at least one type of victimisation were significantly more likely to report both sending and receiving an explicit message (Std Res= 1.5), whereas those who had reported at least one type of victimisation were also less likely to report as never having sent an explicit message at all (Std Res= -1.7), Fisher's Exact Test, $P<0.05$. Those who reported as never sent a sext message (Std=-2.3) were also significantly less likely to report completed rape by intoxication victimisation than those who had sent or received a sext message Fisher's Exact Test, $P<0.05$. No significant differences were found between a participant's sexting behaviour and reported victimisation of sexual contact, sexual contact by intoxication, attempted coercion, coercion, and attempted rape by intoxication. There was also no significant difference between participant employment and their sexting behaviours.

Table 27 shows the online dating and sexting behaviour figures for those that reported perpetration and non-perpetration. Descriptive statistics suggest that a higher number of perpetrators have used a dating app or website. However, chi-square, or Fisher's Exact test where necessary, analysis found no significant differences for any perpetration type and the use of dating apps between perpetrators and non-perpetrators when the data met chi-square assumptions. Moreover, chi-square and Fisher's Exact test analysis found no significance between perpetrators and non-perpetrators in the number of dating apps they have used or their sexting behaviours for any of the perpetration categories.

Student Risk Factors

To identify the potential relationship between sexual victimisation and student specific risk factors, the distance students live from university campus and the year that students were in during the 12-month time frame have been analysed. Table 28 shows the number of reported student victims and non-victims for each type to sexual victimisation and the differences between their student year and living locations. Chi-square analysis found no significant difference between victims and non-victims of all sexual victimisation categories and their living location to the university, with close to an even spread across all living locations and victim/ non-victim reported numbers.

In regard to student year, the descriptive statistics show that 1st and 2nd years showed the highest percentage of victims than 3rd and 4th+ years. Chi-square analysis also shows that there was a significant difference between those that reported at least one type of victimisation and the year of study they were in $X^2(3)=10.18$, $P<0.05$. The direction of the significance shows that 2nd year students (Std Res= 1.8) were more likely to report victimisation in the last 12 months than any other year group, thus suggesting that younger students, either those in the second year or first year, as their experience may have been in a lower year due to the 12-month time gap, may be more likely to experience negative sexual experiences. Moreover, those who reported sexual contact victimisation were significantly more likely to also be in their 2nd year of study (Std res= 1.7), with victims being significantly less likely to be in the 4th year or above (Std Res = -1.6), thus again suggesting the higher victimisation level of newer students compared to students in later years of study $X^2(3)=9.86$, $P<0.05$. However, 1st year students (Std Res= 2.0) were significantly more likely to suffer attempted coercion experiences (Fisher's Exact Test, $P<0.05$) than 2nd (Std res = -1.3) or 3rd year students (Std Res = -1.6). No evidence of a significant difference, when using chi-square or Fishers Exact test analysis, was found

between student victims and non-victims of coercion, attempted rape, attempted rape by intoxication and rape, as well as completed rape by intoxication and their student year. Even though student year was found to be significant among different victimisation types it has been excluded from regression analysis. This was done as including this variable would exempt half of the sample from regression analysis, as the sample is a mix of both students and non-students.

Table 27 – Descriptive Statistics for Online Dating Experiences by Perpetration and Employment

	Variables Measured									
Type of Sexual Assault:	Online Dating Behaviours						Sexting Behaviours			
	Used a Dating App/Website		Number of Apps/Websites used to find a Sexual Partner				Number of Participants who have had Experiences with Explicit Messages			
	Yes	No	0	1-2	3-4	5-6	Sent Only	Received Only	Both Sent and Received	No Experiences
Overall Perpetration										
Perpetration	11 (64.7)	6 (35.3)	6 (35.3)	11 (64.7)	0 (0)	N/A	0 (0)	3 (17.6)	11 (64.7)	3 (17.6)
Non- Perpetration	157 (48.8)	165 (51.2)	165 (51.2)	136 (42.2)	20 (6.2)	N/A	7 (2.2)	51 (15.9)	187 (58.3)	76 (23.7)
Sexual Contact										
Perpetration	9 (60)	6 (40)	6 (40)	9 (60)	0 (0)	N/A	0 (0)	2 (13.3)	10 (66.7)	3 (20)
Non- Perpetration	159 (49.1)	165 (50.9)	165 (50.9)	138 (42.6)	20 (6.2)	N/A	7 (2.2)	52 (16.1)	188 (58.2)	76 (23.5)
Attempted Coercion										
Perpetration	1 (33.3)	2 (66.7)	2 (66.7)	1 (33.3)	0 (0)	N/A	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (100)	0 (0)
Non- Perpetration	167 (49.9)	168 (50.1)	168 (50.1)	146 (43.6)	20 (6)	N/A	7 (2.1)	54 (16.2)	194 (58.1)	79 (23.7)
Coercion										
Perpetration	3 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (100)	0 (0)	N/A	0 (0)	1 (33.3)	2 (66.7)	0 (0)
Non- Perpetration	165 (49.3)	170 (50.7)	170 (50.7)	144 (43)	20 (6)	N/A	7 (2.1)	53 (15.9)	195 (58.4)	79 (23.7)
Employment										
Employed	58 (49.2)	60 (50.8)	60 (50.8)	48 (40.7)	10 (8.5)	N/A	2 (1.7)	15 (12.7)	72 (61)	29 (24.6)
Undergraduate Student	55 (49.5)	56 (50.5)	56 (50.5)	52 (46.8)	3 (2.7)	N/A	0 (0)	21 (19.1)	65 (59.1)	24 (21.8)
Postgraduate Student	33 (47.8)	36 (52.2)	36 (52.2)	30 (43.5)	2 (2.9)	N/A	4 (5.8)	12 (17.4)	37 (53.6)	16 (23.2)
Student (other)	14 (45.2)	17 (54.8)	17 (54.8)	11 (35.5)	3 (9.7)	N/A	1 (3.2)	2 (6.5)	19 (61.3)	9 (29)

*Results indicate number of reported perpetrators/non-perpetrators with percentages in brackets (%) (Some figures may not match up due to inconsistent participant reply to each question)

Table 28 – Descriptive Statistics for Student Information by Reported Victimisation

	Variables Measured						
Type of Sexual Assault:	Student Living Location			Student Reported Year			
	In the Area (Uni)	Walking Distance (Uni)	Further Afield	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year +
Overall Perpetration							
Victim	23 (33.3)	27 (39.1)	19 (27.5)	36 (51.4)	17 (24.3)	5 (7.1)	12 (17.1)
Non-Victim	45 (32.4)	45 (32.4)	49 (35.3)	62 (44.6)	16 (11.5)	21 (15.1)	40 (28.8)
Sexual Contact							
Victim	22 (36.1)	22 (36.1)	17 (27.9)	33 (53.2)	15 (24.2)	5 (8.1)	9 (14.5)
Non-Victim	46 (31.3)	50 (34)	51 (34.7)	65 (44.2)	18 (12.2)	21 (14.3)	43(29.3)
Attempted Coercion							
Victim	6 (30)	6 (30)	8 (40)	16 (76.2)	1 (4.8)	0 (0)	4 (19)
Non-Victim	62 (33.2)	65 (34.8)	60 (32.1)	81 (43.3)	32 (17.1)	26 (13.9)	48 (25.7)
Coercion							
Victim	4 (26.7)	5 (33.3)	6 (40)	9 (60)	2 (13.3)	0 (0)	4 (26.7)
Non-Victim	64 (33.2)	67 (34.7)	62 (32.1)	89 (45.9)	31 (16)	26 (13.4)	48 (24.7)
Attempted Rape							
Victim	5 (22.7)	11 (50)	6 (27.3)	13 (59.1)	5 (22.7)	0 (0)	4 (18.2)
Non-Victim	63 (33.9)	61 (32.8)	62 (33.3)	85 (45.5)	28 (15)	26 (13.9)	48 (25.7)
Rape							
Victim	8 (32)	11 (44)	6 (24)	14 (56)	6 (24)	0 (0)	5 (20)
Non-Victim	60 (32.8)	61 (33.3)	62 (33.9)	84 (45.7)	27 (14.7)	26 (14.1)	47 (25.5)
Sexual Contact – Intox							
Victim	15 (39.5)	14 (36.8)	9 (23.7)	22 (57.9)	8 (21.2)	3 (7.9)	5 (13.2)
Non-Victim	53 (31.7)	56 (33.5)	58 (34.7)	73 (43.5)	25 (14.9)	23 (13.7)	47 (28)
Attempted Rape – Intox							
Victim	4 (22.2)	10 (55.6)	4 (22.2)	10 (55.6)	4 (22.2)	0 (0)	4 (22.2)
Non-Victim	64 (33.9)	61 (32.3)	64 (33.9)	87 (45.8)	29 (15.3)	26 (13.7)	48 (25.3)
Completed Rape - Intox							
Victim	6 (30)	10 (50)	4 (20)	12 (60)	5 (25)	0 (0)	3 (15)
Non-Victim	62 (33.2)	61 (32.6)	64 (34.2)	85 (45.2)	28 (14.9)	26 (13.8)	49 (26.1)

*Results indicate number of reported victims/non-victims in each variable with percentages in brackets (%)

Peer Pressure

Table 29 outlines the average scores for the peer pressure questions and the total score by victimisation type and prevalence, whereas Table 30 outlines the same information by perpetration type and prevalence. Overall, the data concerning participant total peer pressure score was found to violate the assumptions of normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test; D(340)=0.11=, P=0.00). In regard to peer pressure total score by victimisation type, parametric t-tests and ANOVAs were still chosen as they are a more robust test and are justified due to the central limit theorem. Also, a number of Levene tests indicate that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met by overall victimisation (p=0.13), sexual contact (p=0.32), attempted coercion (p=0.06), rape (p=0.86), sexual contact by intoxication (p=0.18) and attempted rape by intoxication (p=0.07), whereas coercion (p=0.00), attempted rape (p=0.03) and completed rape by intoxication (p=0.02) violated the assumption of homogeneity of variance. After making the appropriate corrections, it was found that victims were significantly more likely to feel a greater amount of peer pressure than non-victims of attempted rape t(340)=-2.44,p<0.05 [CI 95%: -0.90 to -0.08], with a medium effect size (Cohen's d=-0.51), attempted rape by intoxication t(340)=-2.19,p<0.05 [CI 95%: -0.79 to -0.04], with a small effect size (Cohen's d=-0.43)and rape t(340)=-2.08,p<0.05 [CI 95%: -0.66 to -0.02], with a small effect size (Cohen's d=-0.34). However, no evidence of a significant difference was found between the amount of peer pressure felt by victims and non-victims of overall victimisation t(340)=-0.60,p>0.05, sexual contact t(340)=-0.35,p>0.05, sexual contact by intoxication t(333)=-0.38,p<0.05, attempted coercion t(340)=-1.85,p<0.05, coercion t(340)=-1.88,p>0.05 or competed rape by intoxication t(33.71)=-1.90,p<0.05.

As the number of reported perpetrators was low for each category compared to non-victims in the past 12 months, non-parametric tests were chosen to provide a more reliable result. Mann-Whitney U tests provide evidence that perpetrators were more likely to report a higher level of peer pressure that non-perpetrators for those that reported perpetrating unwanted sexual contact U=1594,p<0.05, with a small effect size (Cohen's d= 0.24) and attempted coercion U=122.50,p<0.05, with a small effect size (Cohen's d= 0.25). No evidence of a significant difference was found between perpetrators and non-perpetrators for overall perpetration.

Pornography

Table 31 shows participant pornography behaviour figures divided by reported victimisation prevalence of each sexual victimisation category; including whether they have ever watched pornography, their pornography regularity, whether they masturbate to pornography, their masturbation regularity, and the results from the hard-core, forced sex pornography question. Overall, a large number of young participants in the sample confirmed that they watch pornography, with around 80% of each sample confirming pornography use. Therefore, inferential tests identified that there were no significant differences between victims and non-victims of all measured prevalence categories in regard to if they have watched pornography or not. This lack of a significant difference was also found between different participant employments and whether they had reported watching pornography or not.

No significant differences were also found between reported victims and non-victims of each assault category and the regularity of watching pornography, with a large number of participants stating that they only watch pornography occasionally. No difference was also found between different participant employments and the regularity they watch pornography.

Over three quarters of participants reported that they have masturbated while watching pornography, which could potentially be a justification of why no significant difference was found between different participant employments, as well as between victims and non-victims in each sexual victimisation category. Moreover, when asked if they masturbate 2 times a week or more, nearly three quarters of participants stated that they did not engage in this behaviour regularly. Therefore, inferential tests revealed that there was no significant difference with masturbation regularity between victims and non-victims of each category, as well as between different participant employments.

Chi-square analysis identified that participants who had reported at least one type of victimisation (Std Res= 2.9) were significantly more likely to have a high level of agreement to the statement that 'hard-core' pornography depicting images of forced sex 'turned them on', whereas reported non-victims (Std Res = -1.9) were significantly less likely to agree to this statement $X^2(2)=13.87$, P=0.00. Participants who reported sexual contact victimisation (Std Res= 3.0) were also significantly more likely to have a high acceptance of the 'hard-core' pornography question, whereas non-victims were again found to be significantly less likely (Std Res= -1.7) to agree to the statement $X^2(2)=13.91$, P=0.00. A similar finding was also found for reported victims of attempted coercion, as they were significantly more likely (Std Res=

1.7) to report a high level of agreement to the 'hard-core' pornography statement $X^2(2)=6.25$, $P<0.05$. No significant difference was found between reported agreement to the 'hard-core' pornography question between the reported victims and non-victims of sexual contact by intoxication, coercion, attempted rape, attempted rape by intoxication, rape and completed rape by intoxication.

Table 32 shows similar pornography behaviours by reported perpetration prevalence for each sexual assault and coercion. As with victimisation, there was no significant difference between perpetrators and non-perpetrators on whether they reported watching pornography or not. Again, this could possibly be due to the large number of reported pornography users among the sample. However, chi-square analysis identified that those who reported at least one type of perpetration (Std Res = 2.9) were significantly more likely to report watching pornography on a daily basis than non-perpetrators (Fisher's Exact Test, $P<0.05$). Participants who reported perpetrating unwanted sexual contact acts on another (Std Res= 3.2) were also significantly more likely to watch pornography on a daily basis than non-perpetrators (Fisher's Exact Test, $P<0.05$). No significance was found between perpetrators and non-perpetrators of attempted coercion and coercion.

Table 29 – Descriptive Statistics for Peer Pressure Questions by Victimisation Prevalence within the last 12 months

	Variables Measured								
	Peer Pressure Scale								
Type Of Sexual Assault	Q1*	Q2*	Q3*	Q4*	Q5*	Q6*	Q7 (Reversed)*	Q8*	Peer Pressure Score*
Overall Perpetration									
Victim	3.10 (1.49)	2.89 (1.61)	2.61 (1.59)	2.36 (1.58)	1.89 (1.24)	2.20 (1.44)	1.55 (0.87)	2.08 (1.43)	2.33 (1.04)
Non- Victim	2.83 (1.55)	3.12 (1.65)	2.50 (1.52)	2.09 (1.43)	1.88 (1.14)	2.18 (1.46)	1.58 (0.88)	1.93 (1.34)	2.26 (0.94)
Sexual Contact									
Victim	3.07 (1.50)	2.77 (1.57)	2.57 (1.54)	2.37 (1.61)	1.84 (1.17)	2.20 (1.46)	1.58 (0.87)	2.14 (1.47)	2.31 (1.02)
Non- Victim	2.86 (1.55)	3.15 (1.66)	2.52 (1.56)	2.10 (1.43)	1.90 (1.17)	2.20 (1.42)	1.57 (0.88)	1.91 (1.32)	2.27 (0.95)
Attempted Coercion									
Victim	3.24 (1.52)	3.21 (1.71)	2.94 (1.85)	2.61 (1.82)	2.00 (1.46)	2.48 (1.77)	1.85 (1.20)	2.33 (1.63)	2.58 (1.14)
Non- Victim	2.88 (1.54)	3.03 (1.64)	2.49 (1.51)	2.12 (1.44)	1.87 (1.14)	2.16 (1.41)	1.55 (0.83)	1.93 (1.33)	2.25 (0.95)
Coercion									
Victim	3.32 (1.44)	3.36 (1.75)	2.82 (1.83)	2.57 (1.62)	2.29 (1.49)	2.50 (1.64)	1.79 (0.99)	2.29 (1.46)	2.61 (1.24)
Non- Victim	2.88 (1.54)	3.02 (1.63)	2.51 (1.53)	2.14 (1.47)	1.85 (1.13)	2.16 (1.43)	1.55 (0.86)	1.94 (1.36)	2.26 (0.94)
Attempted Rape									
Victim	3.75 (1.40)	3.39 (1.64)	3.22 (1.77)	2.61 (1.63)	2.19 (1.51)	2.53 (1.75)	1.83 (1.16)	2.28 (1.48)	2.72 (1.16)
Non- Victim	2.81 (1.52)	3.01 (1.64)	2.45 (1.51)	2.12 (1.46)	1.85 (1.12)	2.15 (1.41)	1.54 (0.83)	1.94 (1.35)	2.23 (0.93)
Rape									
Victim	3.33 (1.59)	3.00 (1.60)	3.00 (1.66)	2.58 (1.57)	2.23 (1.44)	2.55 (1.60)	1.68 (0.92)	2.33 (1.46)	2.58 (1.130
Non- Victim	2.86 (1.52)	3.05 (1.65)	2.47 (1.53)	2.12 (1.47)	1.84 (1.23)	2.14 (1.42)	1.56 (0.87)	1.93 (1.35)	2.25 (0.94)
Sexual Contact – Intox									
Victim	3.13 (1.58)	2.63 (1.54)	2.57 (1.52)	2.46 (1.66)	1.80 (1.17)	2.11 (1.42)	1.69 (1.00)	2.26 (1.54)	2.33 (1.06)
Non-Victim	2.87 (1.53)	3.13 (1.64)	2.53 (1.56)	2.10 (1.44)	1.89 (1.16)	2.21 (1.46)	1.55 (.85)	1.92 (1.33)	2.27 (.95)
Attempted Rape – Intox									
Victim	3.75 (1.40)	3.21 (1.59)	3.07 (1.70)	2.57 (1.55)	2.18 (1.44)	2.54 (1.73)	1.93 (1.27)	2.11 (1.34)	2.67 (1.15)
Non-Victim	2.84 (1.53)	3.03 (1.65)	2.49 (1.53)	2.13 (1.47)	1.86 (1.14)	2.16 (1.42)	1.54 (.83)	1.96 (1.37)	2.25 (.95)
Completed Rape - Intox									
Victim	3.52 (1.59)	3.03 (1.66)	3.03 (1.66)	2.81 (1.64)	2.19 (1.54)	2.61 (1.69)	1.74 (.96)	2.45 (1.50)	2.67 (1.21)
Non-Victim	2.86 (1.52)	3.05 (1.64)	2.49 (1.53)	2.10 (1.45)	1.86 (1.12)	2.15 (1.42)	1.56 (.87)	1.92 (1.35)	2.48 (.94)

**Mean and Standard Deviation; Q1 – If I am single my friends constantly push me to go on dates; Q2- I feel left out when I am single, as all my friends are in some sort of relationship; Q3-I am jealous of my friends and their romantic relationships; Q4-I get teased a lot by friends if I have not had sex for a long time; Q5- All my friends are in sexual relationships, therefore I feel pressured to also have sex regularly; Q6- I don't want to be the one in my friendship group that is not having sex; Q7- I don't care what my friends do. I will only have sex when I want to; Q8-My friends think I am weird if I have not had sex in a while.*

Table 30 – Descriptive Statistics for Peer Pressure Questions by Perpetration and Employment Prevalence within the last 12 months

	Variables Measured								
	Peer Pressure Scale								
Type Of Sexual Assault	Q1*	Q2*	Q3*	Q4*	Q5*	Q6*	Q7 (Reversed)*	Q8*	Total*
Overall Perpetration									
Perpetrator	3.29 (1.36)	3.41 (1.50)	2.41 (1.42)	2.82 (1.51)	2.24 (.139)	2.94 (1.71)	2.00 (1.00)	2.47 (1.46)	2.69 (0.90)
Non- Perpetrator	2.90 (1.54)	3.03 (1.65)	2.54 (1.56)	2.14 (.148)	1.87 (1.16)	2.15 (1.43)	1.55 (0.87)	1.95 (1.36)	2.27 (0.97)
Sexual Contact									
Perpetrator	3.13 (1.25)	3.60 (1.45)	2.52 (1.46)	3.00 (1.51)	2.33 (1.45)	3.07 (1.75)	2.13 (0.99)	2.67 (1.45)	2.81 (0.89)
Non- Perpetrator	2.91 (1.55)	3.03 (1.65)	2.54 (1.56)	2.14 (1.47)	1.87 (1.15)	2.15 (1.42)	1.55 (0.87)	1.94 (1.36)	2.26 (0.05)
Attempted Coercion									
Perpetrator	3.00 (1.00)	4.00 (0.00)	1.33 (0.58)	4.33 (0.58)	4.33 (0.58)	5.00 (1.00)	2.67 (1.15)	3.33 (1.15)	3.50 (0.33)
Non- Perpetrator	2.91 (1.53)	3.04 (1.64)	2.54 (1.55)	2.15 (1.48)	1.85 (1.13)	2.15 (1.41)	1.57 (0.87)	1.96 (1.36)	2.27 (0.96)
Coercion									
Perpetrator	3.67 (1.15)	4.33 (1.53)	3.00 (1.73)	3.33 (1.15)	3.33 (1.15)	3.67 (0.58)	2.00 (1.00)	2.33 (1.53)	3.20 (1.01)
Non- Perpetrator	2.90 (1.53)	3.03 (1.63)	2.52 (1.54)	2.16 (1.48)	1.86 (1.14)	2.17 (1.43)	1.57 (0.90)	1.97 (1.37)	2.27 (0.96)
Employment									
Employed	2.88 (1.52)	3.15 (1.65)	2.60 (1.55)	2.08 (1.35)	1.95 (1.24)	2.16 (1.44)	1.53 (0.85)	1.99 (1.32)	2.28 (0.95)
Undergraduate Student	3.12 (1.60)	2.95 (1.70)	2.70 (1.65)	2.30 (1.65)	1.84 (1.04)	2.13 (1.38)	1.55 (0.89)	1.95 (1.45)	2.32 (1.04)
Postgraduate Student	2.67 (1.46)	2.90 (1.59)	2.04 (1.30)	2.21 (1.50)	1.85 (1.19)	2.26 (1.52)	1.67 (0.93)	1.93 (1.30)	2.20 (0.92)
Student (other)	2.97 (1.52)	3.23 (1.67)	2.63 (1.56)	2.00 (1.46)	2.00 (1.46)	2.30 (1.62)	1.55 (0.89)	2.20 (1.56)	2.37 (1.07)

**Mean and Standard Deviation; Q1 – If I am single my friends constantly push me to go on dates; Q2- I feel left out when I am single, as all my friends are in some sort of relationship; Q3-I am jealous of my friends and their romantic relationships; Q4-I get teased a lot by friends if I have not had sex for a long time; Q5- All my friends are in sexual relationships, therefore I feel pressured to also have sex regularly; Q6- I don't want to be the one in my friendship group that is not having sex; Q7- I don't care what my friends do. I will only have sex when I want to; Q8-My friends think I am weird if I have not had sex in a while.*

Table 31 – Descriptive Statistics for Participant Pornography Behaviours by Victimisation

	Variables Measured											
Type of Sexual Assault:	Pornography Behaviours											
	Watch Pornography?		Pornography How Often?			Masturbation?		Masturbation Regularity?		Hard-core Pornography		
	Yes	No	Occasionally	Weekly	Daily	Yes	No	Yes	No	Low	Medium	High
Overall Victimisation												
Victim	84 (80.8)	20 (19.2)	55 (67.1)	24 (29.3)	3 (3.7)	74 (77.9)	21 (22.1)	23 (27.1)	62 (72.9)	51 (49)	15 (14.4)	19 (18.3)
Non-Victim	194 (82.6)	41 (17.4)	142 (73.6)	41 (21.2)	10 (5.2)	176 (78.2)	49 (21.8)	53 (26.8)	145 (73.2)	149 (63.1)	35 (14.8)	14 (5.9)
Sexual Contact												
Victim	71 (78.9)	19 (21.1)	45 (65.2)	21 (30.4)	3 (4.3)	65 (80.2)	16 (19.8)	20 (27.8)	52 (72.2)	42 (58.3)	13 (18.1)	17 (23.6)
Non-Victim	207 (83.1)	42 (16.9)	152 (73.8)	44 (21.4)	10 (4.9)	185 (77.4)	54 (22.6)	56 (26.5)	155 (73.5)	158 (74.9)	37 (17.5)	16 (7.6)
Attempted Coercion												
Victim	25 (75.8)	8 (24.2)	15 (62.5)	6 (25)	3 (12.5)	23 (76.7)	7 (23.3)	8 (30.8)	18 (69.2)	13 (50)	7 (26.9)	6 (23.1)
Non-Victim	252 (82.6)	53 (17.4)	182 (72.8)	58 (23.2)	10 (4)	226 (78.2)	63 (21.8)	68 (26.6)	188 (73.4)	186 (72.7)	43 (16.8)	27 (10.5)
Coercion												
Victim	22 (88)	3 (12)	16 (69.6)	6 (26.1)	1 (4.3)	22 (88)	3 (12)	7 (30.4)	16 (69.6)	15 (62.5)	4 (16.7)	5 (20.8)
Non-Victim	228 (77.3)	67 (22.7)	181 (71.8)	59 (23.4)	12 (4.8)	228 (77.3)	67 (22.7)	69 (26.5)	191 (73.5)	185 (71.4)	46 (17.8)	28 (10.8)
Attempted Rape												
Victim	31 (86.1)	5 (13.9)	21 (70)	7 (23.3)	2 (6.7)	27 (79.4)	7 (20.6)	8 (27.6)	21 (72.4)	23 (71.9)	7 (21.9)	2 (6.3)
Non-Victim	247 (81.5)	56 (18.5)	176 (71.8)	58 (23.7)	11 (4.5)	223 (78)	63 (22)	68 (26.8)	186 (73.2)	177 (70.5)	43 (17.1)	31 (12.4)
Rape												
Victim	34 (85)	6 (15)	24 (72.7)	7 (21.2)	2 (6.1)	31 (81.6)	7 (18.4)	7 (20.6)	27 (79.4)	21 (60)	8 (22.9)	6 (17.1)
Non-Victim	224 (81.6)	55 (18.4)	173 (71.5)	58 (24)	11 (4.5)	219 (77.7)	63 (22.3)	69 (27.7)	180 (72.3)	179 (72.2)	42 (16.9)	27 (10.9)
Sexual Contact – Intox												
Victim	42 (77.8)	12 (22.2)	28 (68.3)	11 (26.8)	2 (4.9)	39 (78)	11 (22)	13 (31)	29 (69)	27 (62.8)	8 (18.6)	8 (18.6)
Non-Victim	233 (83.2)	47 (16.8)	167 (72.3)	53 (22.9)	11 (4.8)	209 (78.6)	57 (21.4)	63 (26.6)	174 (73.4)	170 (71.7)	42 (17.7)	25 (10.5)
Attempted Rape – Intox												
Victim	23 (82.1)	5 (17.9)	18 (81.8)	2 (9.1)	2 (9.1)	20 (76.9)	6 (23.1)	4 (19)	17 (81)	17 (70.8)	5 (20.8)	2 (8.3)
Non-Victim	254 (81.9)	56 (18.1)	179 (71)	62 (24.6)	11 (4.4)	229 (78.2)	64 (21.8)	72 (27.6)	189 (72.4)	182 (70.5)	45 (17.4)	31 (12)
Completed Rape - Intox												
Victim	26 (83.9)	5 (16.1)	17 (68)	6 (24)	2 (8)	24 (80)	6 (20)	7 (26.9)	19 (73.1)	15 (55.6)	7 (25.9)	5 (18.5)
Non-Victim	251 (81.8)	56 (18.2)	180 (72.3)	58 (23.3)	11 (4.4)	225 (77.9)	64 (22.1)	69 (27)	187 (73)	184 (72.2)	43 (16.9)	28 (11)

*Results indicate number of reported victims/non-victims with percentages in brackets (%)

Table 32 – Descriptive Statistics for Participant Pornography Behaviours by Perpetration

	Variables Measured											
Type of Sexual Assault:	Pornography Behaviours											
	Watch Pornography?		Pornography How Often?			Masturbation?		Masturbation Regularity?		Hard-core Pornography		
	Yes	No	Occasionally	Weekly	Daily	Yes	No	Yes	No	Low	Medium	High
Overall Perpetration												
Perpetrator	14 (82.4)	3 (17.6)	7 (50)	4 (28.6)	3 (21.4)	14 (87.5)	2 (12.5)	8 (53.3)	7 (46.7)	7 (46.7)	4 (26.7)	4 (26.7)
Non- Perpetrator	264 (82.2)	57 (17.8)	190 (72.8)	61 (23.4)	10 (3.8)	236 (77.9)	67 (22.1)	68 (25.4)	200 (74.6)	193 (72)	46 (17.2)	29 (10.8)
Sexual Contact												
Perpetrator	12 (80)	3 (20)	6 (50)	3 (25)	3 (25)	12 (85.7)	2 (14.3)	7 (53.8)	6 (46.2)	6 (46.2)	4 (30.8)	3 (23.1)
Non- Perpetrator	266 (82.4)	57 (17.6)	191 (72.6)	62 (23.6)	10 (3.8)	238 (78)	67 (22)	69 (25.6)	201 (74.4)	194 (71.9)	46 (17)	30 (11.1)
Attempted Coercion												
Perpetrator	3 (100)	0 (0)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	3 (100)	0 (0)	2 (66.7)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	2 (66.7)	0 (0)
Non- Perpetrator	274 (82)	60 (18)	195 (72)	64 (23.6)	12 (4.4)	246 (78.1)	69 (21.9)	74 (26.5)	205 (73.5)	199 (71.3)	47 (16.8)	33 (11.8)
Coercion												
Perpetrator	2 (66.7)	1 (33.3)	0 (0)	2 (100)	0 (0)	2 (100)	0 (0)	2 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (50)	1 (50)
Non- Perpetrator	275 (82.3)	59 (17.7)	196 (72.1)	63 (23.2)	13 (4.8)	247 (78.2)	69 (21.8)	74 (26.4)	206 (73.6)	200 (71.4)	48 (17.1)	32 (11.4)

*Results indicate number of reported perpetration/non-perpetration with percentages in brackets (%)

As a large proportion of participants have reported that they had masturbated to pornography at least once, chi-square and Fisher's exact analysis revealed no difference between perpetrators and non-perpetrators within any category, which is similar to the victimisation analysis. However, those that reported perpetrating at least one type of assault or coercive behaviour (Std Res= 2.0) were significantly more likely to report masturbating twice or more a week than non-perpetrators (Fisher's Exact Test, $P<0.05$). Moreover, those who reported perpetrating unwanted sexual contact with others (Std res= 1.9) were significantly more likely to report masturbating more than twice a week than non-perpetrators (Fisher's Exact Test, $P<0.05$), No significant difference was found for those who attempted to or used coercive behaviour to gain sex from another.

In regard to perpetrator agreement to the 'hard-core' pornography statement, inferential analysis identified that there were no significant differences between reported perpetrators and non-perpetrators in the last 12 months for any perpetration category with their agreement to the 'hard-core' pornography question.

Negative Peer Pressure

Table 33 outlines number of participants, both those who had reported perpetration and those who reported non-perpetration that had reported having peers who supported rape/assault attitudes, as well as the amount of negative peer advice they have been given. In regard to rape supportive group size, inferential chi-square analysis could only be conducted on the overall perpetration and unwanted sexual contact categories due to the low number of reported perpetrators in the other categories. Additionally, the 3-6, 6-9 categories were removed from analysis as very few perpetrators reported those group sizes. Overall, those who reported some type of sexual assault or coercive perpetration were significantly more likely to have a sexual violence supportive group size of 1-2 people (Std Res = 2.7) $X^2(1)=9.52$, $P<0.05$ than non-perpetrators. Moreover, those who had reported perpetrating an act of unwanted sexual contact were also more likely to have a violence supportive group of 1-2 people (Std Res = 2.5) $X^2(1)=8.28$, $P<0.05$. There was not significant difference between participant employment and the size of assault/rape supportive groups when tests could be conducted.

Using a Fisher's Exact test due to the small perpetrator sample it was found that there were no significant differences between perpetrators and non-perpetrators in regard to whether they had received some sort of negative advice for overall perpetration, sexual contact, and coercive behaviours. There were also no differences found between negative peer advice given

and participant employment. However, a significant difference was found with reported attempted coercive behaviours and whether they had been given negative advice, with perpetrators significantly more likely to be given negative advice than non-perpetrators (Std Res= 2.5; p=0.05).

To see if there was a relationship between perpetration levels and specific advice given to participants, a Fisher's Exact Test was conducted to determine the differences between perpetrators and non-perpetrators and the reported advice given to them in the four questions. This test was used as the number of participants did not meet minimal requirements for chi square analysis. Those that reported perpetrating attempted coercive behaviours (Std Res= 4.5; p=0.04) and coercive behaviours (Std Res = 4.5; p=0.04), were significantly more likely to report that they would respond to a dates/girlfriends/boyfriend's sexual rejections by using physical force to have sex (question 1). No difference was found between those that had received this advice and whether they had perpetrated some sort of assaultive behaviour or unwanted sexual contact, as well as no difference with advice given and participant employment.

The same pattern was also found with differences between reported perpetrators and non-perpetrators and whether they had been given the advice that it is okay to emotionally/physically force another person to have sex with you under certain conditions (question 2). Perpetrators (Std Res=4.1; p= 0.05) of reported attempted coercive behaviours and perpetrators (Std Res= 4.1; p=0.05) of successful coercive behaviours were significantly more likely to have been given this advice than non-perpetrators. There was no significant difference found between any other reported perpetration type or participant employment and whether they were given this advice or not.

Perpetrators (Std Res= 2.8; p=0.03) of attempted coercive behaviours were also significantly more likely to be given advice that your boyfriend/girlfriend should have sex with you when you want (question 3), than non-perpetrators. However, there were no other significant differences found between any other perpetration type or participant employment and whether they had been given this advice.

Finally, there was no significant difference between the perpetrators and non-perpetrators of any perpetration type, as well as participant employment, and whether they had been given the advice that if they spend money on a date the other person should have sex with you in return.

Table 33 – Descriptive Statistics for Negative Peer Advice by Perpetration within the last 12 months

Variables Measured									
Type of Sexual Assault:	Negative Peer Advice (NPA)								
	Rape/Sexual Violence Supportive Group Size				Reported Negative Advice Given to Participants				Num of Participants who have been given NegAdvice
	0	1-2	3-5	6-9	NPA1 (Physical force)	NPA2 (Emotional/physical)	NPA3 (When they want)	NPA4 (Money)	
Overall Perpetration									
Perpetrator	8 (47.1)	8 (47.1)	1 (5.9)	0(0)	1 (5.9)	1 (5.9)	3 (17.6)	1 (5.9)	4 (23.5)
Non- Perpetrator	253 (78.8)	57 (17.8)	10 (3.1)	1 (0.3)	4 (1.2)	5 (1.6)	36 (11.2)	9 (2.8)	42 (13)
Sexual Contact									
Perpetrator	7 (46.7)	7 (46.7)	1 (5.9)	0(0)	1 (5.9)	1 (5.9)	3 (17.6)	1 (5.9)	4 (23.5)
Non- Perpetrator	254 (78.6)	58 (18)	10 (3.1)	1 (0.3)	4 (1.2)	5 (1.6)	36 (11.2)	9 (2.8)	42 (13)
Attempted Coercion									
Perpetrator	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	0 (0)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	2 (66.7)	0 (0)	2 (66.7)
Non- Perpetrator	259 (77.5)	64 (19.2)	10 (3)	1 (0.3)	4 (1.2)	5 (1.5)	37 (11.1)	10 (3)	44 (13.1)
Coercion									
Perpetrator	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	0 (0)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	0 (0)	1 (33.3)
Non- Perpetrator	259 (77.5)	64 (19.2)	10 (3)	1 (0.3)	4 (1.2)	5 (1.5)	38 (11.4)	10 (3)	45 (13.4)
Employment									
Employed	83 (70.9)	28 (23.9)	6 (5.1)	0 (0)	2 (1.7)	2 (1.7)	13 (11.1)	2 (1.7)	17 (14.4)
Undergraduate Student	91 (82)	18 (16.2)	1 (0.9)	1 (0.9)	1 (0.9)	0 (0)	13 (11.7)	3 (2.7)	15 (13.5)
Postgraduate Student	54 (78.3)	11 (15.9)	4 (5.8)	0 (0)	2 (2.9)	3 (4.3)	11 (15.9)	2 (2.9)	11 (15.9)
Student (other)	27 (87.1)	4 (12.9)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.2)	2 (6.5)	3 (9.7)	3 (9.7)

*Results indicate number of reported perpetrators/non-perpetrators in each variable with percentages in brackets (%)

Rape Myths

Table 34 shows the reported mean IRMA scores by reported perpetration type. When testing the assumptions of normality, the overall mean score (D(337)=0.13,p=0.00), subscale 1 (D(337)=0.21,p=0.00), subscale 2 (D(337)=0.12,p=0.00), subscale 3 (D(337)=0.32,p=0.00) and subscale 4 (D(337)=0.14,p=0.00) all violated normality in a Kologorov-Smirnov test. Moreover, due to the small sample sizes of reported perpetrators, non-parametric tests will be used. A Mann-Whitney U test identified that those who reported perpetrating at least one type of assault behaviour were significantly more likely to report a higher overall acceptance of rape myths (U=1791,p<0.05), with a small effect size (Cohens d=0.26), as well as a higher acceptance of myths related to subscale 1 (U=1792,p<0.05), with a small effect size (Cohens d=0.26), subscale 2 (U=1904,p<0.05), with a small effect size (Cohens d=0.23) and subscale 3 (U=1913,p<0.05), with a small effect size (Cohens d=0.21). No significant difference was found between the acceptance of myths relating to subscale 4 between reported perpetrators and non-perpetrators.

Mann-Whitney U tests also identify that reported perpetrators of unwanted sexual contact were also more likely to have a higher acceptance of overall rape myths (U=1636,p<0.05), with a small effect size (Cohens d=0.23), as well as a higher acceptance of myths related to subscale 1 (U=1508,p<0.05), with a small effect size (Cohens d=0.27) and subscale 3 (U=1711,p<0.05), with a small effect size (Cohens d=0.21). No significance was found between reported perpetrators and non-perpetrators of unwanted sexual contact and their acceptance of myths relating to subscale 2 and 4.

A round of Mann-Whitney U tests also identified that there is no evidence of a significant difference between reported perpetrators and non-perpetrators of attempted coercion and their overall rape myth acceptance (U=360,p=>0.05), as well their acceptance of rape myths relating to subscale 1 (U=280.50,p=>0.05), subscale 2 (U=273.50,p=>0.05), subscale 3 (U=476,p=>0.05) and subscale 4 (U=490,p=>0.05). A lack of significance was also found between reported perpetrators and non-perpetrators of coercive behaviours and their overall rape myth acceptance (U=410.50,p>0.05), and acceptance of myths relating to subscale 1 (U=363.50,p>0.05), subscale 2 (U=356,p>0.05), subscale 3 (U=458,p>0.05) and subscale 4 (U=482,p>0.05).

Table 34 – Descriptive Statistics for Rape Myth Acceptance by Perpetration

		Variable Measured				
Type of Sexual Assault:		Rape Myth Acceptance – IRMA Results				
		Overall M (SD)	Subscale 1: She asked for it M (SD)	Subscale 2: He didn't mean to M (SD)	Subscale 3: It wasn't really rape M (SD)	Subscale 4: She Lied M (SD)
Overall Perpetration						
	Perpetrator	3.86 (0.81)	4.00 (0.86)	3.62 (0.97)	4.43 (0.74)	3.41 (1.24)
	Non- Perpetrator	4.33 (0.60)	4.47 (0.68)	4.10 (0.79)	4.76 (0.55)	4.01 (0.95)
Sexual Contact						
	Perpetrator	3.88 (0.81)	3.95 (0.88)	3.62 (1.00)	4.51 (0.64)	3.48 (1.29)
	Non- Perpetrator	4.33 (0.60)	4.47 (0.68)	4.09 (0.78)	4.76 (0.56)	4.00 (0.95)
Attempted Coercion						
	Perpetrator	4.00 (0.82)	4.11 (0.63)	3.44 (0.92)	4.66 (0.58)	3.87 (1.63)
	Non- Perpetrator	4.31 (0.62)	4.45 (0.70)	4.08 (0.80)	4.75 (0.57)	3.98 (0.97)
Coercion						
	Perpetrator	3.97 (1.04)	4.16 (0.73)	3.55 (1.25)	4.27 (1.27)	3.93 (1.51)
	Non- Perpetrator	4.31 (0.62)	4.45 (0.70)	4.08 (0.80)	4.75 (0.56)	3.98 (0.97)

4.4.3 Binary Logistic Regressions

As with the previous chapter, logistical regression was used to identify the predictive power of significant risk factor variables on models trying to identify variance between victims and non-victims of each sexual assault and rape type.

Overall Victimisation

Overall, 11 factors were found to be significantly different between those who reported some sort of victimisation and those that did not (See Table 35). These factors were implemented into a binary logistic regression. Initial analyses found the model to be significant $X^2(19)=74.18$, $P<0.01$, which means that it could correctly identify between reported victims and non-victims. The model can correctly explain between 20% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 29% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 77.4% of cases. Table 37 shows the significant variables that contributed to the model. Females were 2.78 times more likely to report overall victimisation (OR=2.78) than male participants, with a moderate effect (Cohen's d=0.56). Participants who reported being with a partner were also significantly less likely to report some sort of victimisation (OR=0.45) than single participants, with a small to moderate effect (Cohen's d=-0.44). Finally, those that reported a higher acceptance to the statement that hard-core pornography that depicts forced sex 'turns them on' were significantly more likely to report some sort of victimisation (OR=3.80) than those with a low acceptance to this statement, with a moderate to high effect (Cohen's d=0.74).

However, age, number of consensual sexual partners, hook-up question 1 and hook-up question 2 all failed to achieve the minimum effect level of 0.2 when the Odds Ratio was converted to effect sizes. Therefore, these variables were removed, and a secondary regression analysis conducted. The final model was significant $X^2(15)=66.80$, $P<0.01$, meaning that it could again correctly differentiate between reported victims of some type of assault or rape and non-victims. The model can correctly explain between 19% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 27% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 74.3% of cases. Table 36 indicates the contributing factors to the final model. Females were 2.98 times more likely to report overall victimisation then male participants (OR=2.98), with a moderate effect (Cohen's d=0.60). Partnered participants were significantly less likely to report victimisation (OR=.44) than single participants, with a small to moderate effect (Cohen's d=-0.45) and married/domestic partnership participants were also significantly less likely to report overall victimisation (OR=.21) than single participants, with a large effect (Cohen's d=-0.86).

Undergraduate students were 1.94 times more likely to report overall victimisation than those who were employed (OR=1.94), with a small effect (Cohen's d=0.36). Participants who reported less socialisation behaviours were also significantly less likely to report some type of victimisation (OR=0.66) than those that reported higher socialisation behaviours, with a small effect (Cohen's d=-0.23). Those that reported using 1-2 dating apps were also 1.84 times more likely to report some type of victimisation (OR=1.84) than those that reported not using any dating apps, with a small effect (Cohen's d=0.34). Finally, those that reported a higher acceptance to the 'hard-core' pornography statement were 3.73 times more likely to report some sort of victimisation than those who indicated less acceptance to the statement

(OR=3.73), with a moderate to large effect (Cohen's d=0.72).

Table 35 – Initial Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Overall Victimisation Including Significant Risk factors

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Age	-0.09	3.03 (1)	.15	.91 [0.81 to 1.01]
Identified Gender - Female	1.03	5.88 (1)	.03*	2.78 [1.14 to 6.94]
Marital Status - Single		8.02 (2)	.02*	
Marital Status – Partnered	-0.79	6.69 (1)	.01*	.45 [0.25 to 0.83]
Marital Status – Married	-1.28	2.86 (1)	.08	.27 [0.06 to 1.23]
Employment - Employed		3.98 (4)	.39	
Employment – Undergrad Stu	0.40	0.98 (1)	.30	1.50 [0.67 to 3.33]
Employment – Postgrad Stu	-0.29	0.45 (1)	.50	.75 [0.32 to 1.74]
Employment – Stu Other	-0.11	0.03 (1)	.85	.89 [0.27 to 2.95]
Number of ConSex Partners	0.04	2.97 (1)	.08	1.04 [0.99 to 1.08]
Bar/Club Socialise	-0.22	2.14 (1)	.07	.76 [0.60 to 1.08]
Hook-Up Q1	0.25	3.19 (1)	.11	1.29 [0.98 to 1.70]
Hook Up Q2	-0.09	0.23 (1)	.62	.92 [0.64 to 1.30]
Number of Apps Used - 0		1.95 (2)	.38	
Number of Apps Used – 1-2	0.38	1.49 (1)	.22	1.46 [0.79 to 2.68]
Number of Apps Used – 3-5	-0.19	0.08 (1)	.77	.82 [0.22 to 3.05]
Sexting - Sent		5.14 (3)	.16	
Sexting - Received	-0.27	0.47 (1)	.82	.76 [0.07 to 8.84]
Sexting - Both	0.58	0.24 (1)	.62	1.79 [0.17 to 18.78]
Sexting - Neither	0.08	0.00 (1)	.94	1.09 [0.09 to 12.18]
Hard-core Pornography Q – Low Agreement		9.92 (3)	.03*	
Hard-core Pornography Q – Medium Agreement	0.01	0.00 (1)	.84	1.09 [.44 to 2.36]
Hard-core Pornography Q – High Agreement	1.40	9.05 (1)	.00*	3.80 [1.49 to 9.63]
Constant	0.21	0.12 (1)	.91	.98

*Significant result

Table 36 – Final Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Overall Victimisation Including Significant Risk factors

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Identified Gender - Female	1.09	5.77 (1)	.01*	2.98 [1.22 50 7.26]
Marital Status - Single		10.42 (2)	.00*	
Marital Status – Partnered	-.82	7.44(1)	.00*	.44 [.24 to .79]
Marital Status – Married	-1.56	5.35(1)	.02*	.21 [.06 to .79]
Employment - Employed		6.50 (3)	.09	
Employment – Undergrad Stu	.66	4.07 (1)	.04*	1.94 [1.02 to 3.73]
Employment – Postgrad Stu	-.20	.23 (1)	.62	.82 [.36 to 1.84]
Employment – Stu Other	.19	.13 (1)	.71	1.22 [.41 to 3.58]
Bar/Club Socialise	-.44	8.42 (1)	.00*	.66 [.50 to .87]
Number of Apps Used - 0		4.50(2)	.10	
Number of Apps Used – 1-2	.60	4.26(1)	.04*	1.84 [1.03 to 3.27]
Number of Apps Used – 3-5	-.02	.00 (1)	.97	1.05 [.30 to 3.57]
Sexting - Sent		5.32(3)	.15	
Sexting - Received	.23	.02 (1)	.85	1.26 [.11 to 14.3]
Sexting - Both	.92	.60 (1)	.43	2.52 [.24 to 26.23]
Sexting - Neither	.25	.04 (1)	.83	1.29 [.12 to 14.36]
Hard-core Pornography Q – Low Agreement		8.70 (2)	.03*	
Hard-core Pornography Q – Medium Agreement	.14	8.33 (1)	.74	1.15 [.51 to 2.57]
Hard-core Pornography Q – High Agreement	1.37	8.33 (1)	.00*	3.73 [1.53 to 9.13]
Constant	-1.55	1.25 (1)	.26	.21

*Significant result

Overall, being female, an undergraduate student, using 1-2 dating apps and indicating that 'hard-core' pornography that depicted rape 'turned you on' to a greater degree significantly contributed to predicting overall victimisation, whereas being partnered, married, or engaging in less socialisation behaviours were found to significantly reduce the risk of victimisation and thus can be seen as more protective factors. Moreover, introducing risk factor behaviour into the model significantly increased the amount of variance explained by this model compared to demographical tests run in the previous chapter. Even though victims and non-victims of overall victimisation significantly differ on age, with younger participants significantly more likely to report victimisation, this variable only has a very small effect on the model and interacts with employment by making the latter non-significant. This interaction could be explained by all victims across employments being younger than non-victims, which will be discussed later.

Sexual Contact

Table 37 shows the significant factors that were used in a regression analysis to determine the predictive power of risk factors when trying to differentiate between victims and non-victims of unwanted sexual contact, as well as the significant contributing factors. Overall, the initial

model was significant $X^2(16)=59.58$, $P<0.01$, which means that the model could correctly differentiate between reported victims of unwanted sexual contact and those that did not report being victimised. The model can correctly explain between 17% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 25% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 76.8% of cases. Those who reported less socialising in bars and clubs were significantly less likely to report victimisation (OR=.68), with a small effect (Cohen's d= -0.21). Participants who reported a higher acceptance to the 'hard-core' pornography statement were 3.19 times more likely to report victimisation than those who accepted the statement less (OR=3.19), with a moderate effect (Cohen's d=0.64).

However, after converting all Odds Ratios into effect sizes it was found that the age, number of consensual sexual partners, hook-up 1 question and hook-up 2 question failed to reach the minimum effect size of 0.2 (Cohen, 1988). Therefore, these variables were removed, and a secondary regression analysis was conducted to try and increase the predictive power of the model. The final model was found to be significant $X^2(12)=52.86$, $P<0.01$, meaning it could correctly differentiate between victims and non-victims of unwanted sexual contact. The model can correctly explain between 15% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 22% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 76.8% of cases. Table 38 shows the significant contributors to the model. Undergraduate students were 2.47 times more likely to report experiencing unwanted sexual contact victimisation (OR=2.47) than employed participants, with a moderate effect (Cohen's d=0.5). Those who reported engaging in less bar/club socialising behaviours were significantly less likely to experience sexual contact victimisation (OR=.59), with a small effect (Cohen's d=-0.29). Participants who reported using 1-2 dating apps were 1.86 times more likely to report sexual contact victimisation than those who reported using 0 dating apps or websites (OR=1.86), with a small effect (Cohen's d=0.34). Finally, those who had a higher level of acceptance to the hard-core pornography question were 3.22 times more likely to report sexual contact victimisation (OR=3.22) than those who indicated a lower acceptance to the statement, with a moderate effect (Cohen's d=0.64).

Table 37 – Initial Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Sexual Contact Including Significant Risk factors

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Age	-.08	1.66 (1)	.19	.92 [0.91 to 1.04]
Identified Gender - Female	.59	1.70 (1)	.19	1.80 [0.74 to 4.36]
Marital Status - Single		1.05 (2)	.59	
Marital Status – Partnered	-.28	.83 (1)	.36	.75 [0.41 to 1.38]
Marital Status – Married	-.51	.45 (1)	.49	.60 [0.13 to 2.61]
Employment - Employed		5.23(3)	.14	
Employment – Undergrad Stu	.68	2.61 (1)	.10	1.98 [0.86 to 4.57]
Employment – Postgrad Stu	-.34	.58 (1)	.44	.70 [0.28 to 1.72]
Employment – Stu Other	.51	.74(1)	.38	1.68 [0.51 to 5.45]
Number of ConSex Partners	.33	2.64 (1)	.10	1.03 [0.99 to 1.07]
Bar/Club Socialise	-.38	5.99 (1)	.01*	.68 [0.50 to 0.92]
Hook-Up Q1	.19	2.01 (1)	.16	1.22 [0.93 to 1.60]
Hook Up Q2	-.17	.86 (1)	.35	.84 [0.58 to 1.21]
Number of Apps Used - 0		1.99 (3)	.37	
Number of Apps Used – 1-2	.44	1.97 (1)	.16	1.55 [0.83 to 2.89]
Number of Apps Used – 3-4	.37	.31 (1)	.57	1.45 [0.39 to 5.33]
Hard-core Pornography Q – Low Agreement		7.53 (2)	.06	
Hard-core Pornography Q – Medium Agreement	.04	0.01 (1)	.91	1.04 [0.44 to 2.46]
Hard-core Pornography Q – High Agreement	1.16	6.17 (1)	.01*	3.19 [1.27 to 8.00]
Constant	.40	.60 (1)	.80	1.49

*Significant result

Table 38 – Final Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Sexual Contact Including Significant Risk factors

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Identified Gender - Female	.72	2.63 (1)	.10	2.06 [0.86 to 4.95]
Marital Status - Single		1.70 (2)	.42	
Marital Status – Partnered	-.29	.96 (1)	.32	.74 [0.41 to 1.34]
Marital Status – Married	-.71	1.14 (1)	.28	.49 [0.13 to 1.82]
Employment - Employed		11.87 (3)	.00*	
Employment – Undergrad Stu	.90	7.06 (1)	.00*	2.47 [1.27 to 4.82]
Employment – Postgrad Stu	-.29	.45 (1)	.50	.74 [0.31 to 1.77]
Employment – Stu Other	.75	1.91 (1)	.17	2.11 [0.73 to 6.06]
Bar/Club Socialise	-.51	12.42 (1)	.00*	.59 [0.45 to 0.80]
Number of Apps Used - 0		4.40 (2)	.11	
Number of Apps Used – 1-2	.62	4.35 (1)	.04*	1.86 [1.04 to 3.33]
Number of Apps Used – 3-4	.48	.59 (1)	.44	1.62 [0.47 to 5.58]
Hard-core Pornography Q – Low Agreement		7.62 (2)	.05*	
Hard-core Pornography Q – Medium Agreement	.05	.01 (1)	.91	1.05 [.49 to 2.39]
Hard-core Pornography Q – High Agreement	1.17	6.84 (1)	0.00*	3.22 [1.34 to 7.76]
Constant	-.94	2.04 (1)	.15	.39

*Significant result

Being an undergraduate student, using 1-2 dating apps and having a higher acceptance to the hard-core pornography question significantly contributed to an increased the risk of victimisation within the model, whereas reporting less social behaviour decreased the likelihood of victimisation and can therefore be considered a protective factor. Introducing risk factors significantly increased the predictive power of the model in relation to its explanation of case variance compared to similar models conducted with only demographical variables.

Attempted Coercion

Table 39 shows the variables chosen for regression analysis due to the significant differences between victims and non-victims of attempted coercion for each variable that was found with initial inferential tests. Overall, the regression model was significant $X^2(7)=20.34$, $P<0.01$, meaning that the model could correctly differentiate between victims and non-victims. The model can correctly explain between 6% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 12% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 90.2% of cases. Only one variable was a significant contributor to the model. Those who had a higher acceptance to the hard-core pornography question were 3.41 times (OR=3.41) more likely to report victimisation than those who reported a lower acceptance, with a moderate effect (Cohen's d=0.68).

When all Odd Ratios were converted to effect size age, bar/club socialising behaviour, hook-up question 1 and whether a participant had used a dating app all failed to achieve the minimum effect of 0.2 (Cohen, 1988). However, as removing these variables would only leave the 'hard-core' pornography variable, it was not appropriate to run a second regression analysis.

Table 39 – Final Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Attempted Coercion Including Significant Risk factors

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Age	-.10	.19 (1)	.09	.90 [0.80 to 1.02]
Bar/Club Socialise	-.19	.87 (1)	.35	.83 [0.56 to 1.23]
Hook-Up Q1	.27	3.44 (1)	.06	1.31 [0.98 to 1.75]
Used an App- Yes	.34	.61 (1)	.43	1.40 [0.59 to 3.30]
Hard-core Pornography Q – Low Agreement		5.91 (2)	.12	
Hard-core Pornography Q – Medium Agreement	.72	1.93 (1)	.16	2.06 [0.74 to 5.72]
Hard-core Pornography Q – High Agreement	1.22	4.85 (10	.02*	3.41 [1.14 to 10.17]
Constant	-.66	.19 (1)	.65	.52

*Significant result

Coercion

The variables age and whether a participant had used a dating app were used in a regression analysis to test their predictive power on determining the likelihood that someone would be a victim or non-victim of coercion. The model was not significant $X^2(2)=4.74$, $P>0.05$, meaning that it could not differentiate between victims and non-victims with the predictive power of the variables.

Attempted Rape

A regression analysis to determine the predictive power of age, bar/club behaviour, hook-up question 1, peer pressure and employment on a model to differentiate between victims and non-victims of attempted rape was conducted. Overall, the model was significant $X^2(7)=28.48$, $P<0.05$, meaning that it could successfully differentiate between victims and non-victims of attempted rape. The model can correctly explain between 8% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 17% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 89.3% of cases. Table 40 shows the significant contributing variables to the model. Younger participants were more likely to report victimisation than older participants (OR=.86), with a very small effect (Cohen's d=-0.08). Those who reported less bar/club social behaviour were significantly less likely to report victimisation than those who reported higher bar/club behaviours (OR=.63), with a small effect (Cohen's d=-0.25). Those who reported a higher peer pressure score were 1.43 times more likely (OR=1.43) to report victimisation than those with lower peer pressure scores, with a small effect (Cohen's d=0.2).

Table 40 – Initial Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Attempted Rape Including Significant Risk factors

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Age	-.14	3.81 (1)	.05*	.86 [0.74 to 1.00]
Bar/Club Socialise	-.45	4.48 (1)	.03*	.63 [0.42 to 0.97]
Hook-Up Q1	.15	1.10 (1)	.29	1.16 [0.88 to 1.54]
Peer Pressure Score	.36	4.02	.04*	1.43 [1.00 to 2.03]
Employment - Employed		3.23 (3)	.36	
Employment – Undergrad Stu	-.25	.24 (1)	.62	.77 [0.28 to 2.12]
Employment – Postgrad Stu	-.72	1.36 (1)	.24	.48 [0.14 to 1.64]
Employment – Stu Other	-1.69	2.28 (1)	.13	.18 [0.02 to 1.65]
Constant	1.40	.57 (1)	.45	4.05

*Significant result

As age and hook-up question 1 failed to meet the minimum effect size of 0.2 (Cohen, 1988) when the Odd ratios were converted to effect sizes, these variables were removed, and another regression analysis conducted. The final model was also significant $X^2(5)=23.80$, $P<0.01$ and could differentiate between victims and non-victims of attempted rape. The model

can correctly explain between 7% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 14% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 89.1% of cases. Table 41 shows the significant contributors to the model. Those who reported a higher level of peer pressure were 1.45 times (OR=1.45) more likely to report victimisation of attempted rape than those with lower indicated peer pressure, with a small effect (Cohen's d=0.2). Those who reported higher bar/club behaviours (OR=1.80) were significantly more likely to report victimisation, with a small effect (Cohen's d=0.32).

Table 41 – Final Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Attempted Rape Including Significant Risk factors

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Bar/Club Socialise	-.59	8.78 (1)	.00*	1.80 [0.37 to 0.82]
Peer Pressure Score	.37	4.56 (1)	.03*	1.45 [1.03 to 2.03]
Employment - Employed		4.01 (3)	.26	
Employment – Undergrad Stu	.38	.84 (1)	.36	1.47 [0.65 to 3.33]
Employment – Postgrad Stu	-.55	.82 (1)	.36	.57 [0.17 to 1.91]
Employment – Stu Other	-1.08	1.02 (1)	.31	.34 [0.04 to 2.78]
Constant	-1.44	3.25 (1)	0.7	.24

*significant result

Overall, feeling greater levels of peer pressure significantly contributed to predicting victimisation of attempted rape, whereas reduced social behaviour was found to significantly reduce victimisation risk within the model and can therefore be seen as a protective factor. Introducing risk factors to the model increased the amount of variance it could predict compared to similar models in the previous chapter when only testing demographics.

Rape

Table 42 shows the variables that were used in a regression analysis to determine their predictive power to differentiate between victims and non-victims of rape. Overall, the model was significant $X^2(9)=39.06$, $P<0.01$, meaning that it can correctly differentiate between victims and non-victims of rape. The model can correctly explain between 11% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 21% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 89.1% of cases. Participants who reported that they had a partner were significantly less likely (OR=.26) to report victimisation than single participants, with a moderate to large effect (Cohen's d=0.74). Moreover, participants who were married or in a domestic partnership were significantly less likely to report victimisation than single participants (OR=.17), with a very large effect (Cohen's d=0.98). Those with a higher number of sexual partners were significantly more likely to report victimisation (OR=1.06), although with a very small effect (Cohen's d=0.03). Participants who had never sent or received an explicit 'sext' message were

significantly less likely to report rape victimisation than those who had sent and/or received a sext message (OR=.06), with a very large effect (Cohen's d=-1.55).

Table 42 – Initial Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Rape Including Significant Risk factors

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Identified Gender - Female	1.18	3.02 (1)	.08	3.27 [0.85 to 12.44]
Marital Status - Single		10.92 (2)	.00*	
Marital Status – Partnered	-1.32	8.80 (1)	.00*	.26 [0.02 to 3.17]
Marital Status – Married	-1.76	4.46 (1)	.03*	.17 [0.03 to 0.88]
Number of ConSex Partners	.06	7.15 (1)	.01*	1.06 [1.01 to 1.10]
Hook-Up Q1	-.04	.07 (1)	.79	.96 [0.72 to 1.28]
Sexting - Sent		8.22 (3)	.04*	
Sexting - Received	-1.29	1.07 (1)	.30	.28 [0.02 to 3.17]
Sexting - Both	-.78	.44 (1)	.50	.46 [0.05 to 4.52]
Sexting - Neither	-2.80	4.20 (1)	.04*	.06 [0.00 to 0.88]
Peer Pressure Score	.27	2.17 (10	.14	1.31 [.91 to 1.88]
Constant	-2.26	2.53 (1)	.13	.10

*significant result

However, as number of consensual sexual partners, hook-up question 1 and peer pressure failed to meet the minimum effect level of 0.2, these variables were removed, and another regression analysis conducted. The final model was significant $X^2(6)=26.94$, $P<0.01$, meaning that it could again successfully differentiate between victims and non-victims of rape. The model can correctly explain between 8% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 15% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 87.9% of cases. Table 43 shows the significant contributors to the model. Partnered participants were again significantly less likely to report victimisation than single participants (OR=.29), with a moderate effect (Cohen's d=-0.68) and married/domestic partnership participants were significantly less likely to report rape victimisation than single participants (OR=.21), with a large effect (Cohen's d=-0.86). Those that had never received or sent a sext message were significantly less likely to report rape victimisation compared those that had sent and/or received a sext message (OR=.06), with a very large effect (Cohen's d=-1.55).

Table 43 – Final Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Rape Including Significant Risk factors

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Identified Gender - Female	1.01	2.47 (1)	.11	2.74 [0.78 to 9.61]
Marital Status - Single		11.59 (2)	.00*	
Marital Status – Partnered	-1.23	9.38 (1)	.00*	.29 [0.13 to 0.64]
Marital Status – Married	-1.52	3.91 (1)	.04*	.21 [0.05 to 0.99]
Sexting - Sent		9.47 (3)	.02*	
Sexting - Received	-1.04	.73 (1)	.39	.35 [0.03 to 3.83]
Sexting - Both	-.56	.24 (1)	.62	.57 [0.06 to 5.41]
Sexting - Neither	-2.77	4.20 (1)	.04*	.06 [0.00 to 0.89]
Constant	-1.38	1.11 (1)	.29	.25

*significant result

Being partnered, married, and never sending a sext message previously were significant contributors to reducing the risk of victimisation as indicated by the model, thus can potentially be seen as protective factors in reducing the risk of victimisation.

Sexual Contact – Intoxication

To identify the predictive power of significant variables in determining the difference between victims and non-victims of sexual assault by intoxication, a regression analysis was conducted. Table 44 shows the variables submitted to analysis and whether they were significant to the model. The initial analysis model was significant $X^2(9)=36.59$, $P<0.01$, meaning that it could correctly differentiate between victims and non-victims. The model can correctly explain between 11% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 18% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 84.1% of cases. Those that report not engaging in consensual sex before were significantly less likely to report victimisation to sexual contact by intoxication than those who had engaged in consensual sex (OR=.18), with a large effect (Cohen's d=-0.94). Moreover, those who reported in engaging in a higher amount of social behaviour in bars and clubs were significantly more likely to report victimisation than those who reported less bar/club behaviour (OR=1.44), with a small effect (Cohen's d=0.2).

Table 44 – Initial Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Sexual Contact by Intoxication Including Significant Risk Factors

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Age	-.12	.05 (1)	.81	.98 [0.86 to 1.24]
Marital Status - Single		3.40 (2)	.18	
Marital Status – Partnered	-.48	1.86 (1)	.17	.62 [0.31 to 1.23]
Marital Status – Married	-1.61	2.11 (1)	.14	.20 [0.02 to 1.75]
Employment - Employed		6.32 (3)	.09	
Employment – Undergrad Stu	82	2.87 (1)	09	2.28 [0.88 to 5.91]
Employment – Postgrad Stu	-.55	.93 (1)	.33	.58 [0.19 to 1.76]
Employment – Stu Other	.48	.52 (1)	.47	1.61 [0.44 to 5.89]
Had Consensual Sex? - No	-1.69	4.74 (1)	.03*	.18 [0.04 to 0.84]
Bar/Club Socialise	.37	4.12 (1)	.04*	1.44 [1.01 to 2.06]
Hook-Up Q1	.11	.76 (1)	.38	1.12 [0.87 to 1.43]
Constant	-2.16	1.90 (1)	.17	.07

*significant result

After converting the Odds Ratios of each variable into effect sizes, age, and hook-up question 1 were removed for failing to meet the minimum effect size (Cohen, 1988). A final regression analysis was conducted with the remaining variables. The final model was significant $X^2(7)=36.11$, $P<0.01$ meaning that it could correctly differentiate between victims and non-victims. The model can correctly explain between 11% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 18% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 84.4% of cases. Table 45 shows the significant contributors to the model. Undergraduate students were

significantly more likely to report sexual contact by intoxication than employed participants (OR=2.48), with a medium effect (Cohen's d=0.5). Those who had never reported in engaging in consensual sex before were significantly less likely to report victimisation than those that had (OR=.17), with a large effect (Cohen's d=-0.98). Finally, those who reported engaging in a higher amount of bar/club social behaviour were significantly more likely to report victimisation than those who engaging in less bar/club behaviour (OR=1.52), with a small effect (Cohen's d=0.24).

Table 45 – Final Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Sexual Contact by Intoxication Including Significant Risk Factors

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Marital Status - Single		4.51 (2)	.10	
Marital Status – Partnered	-.55	2.52 (1)	.11	.58 [0.29 to 1.14]
Marital Status – Married	-1.76	2.76 (1)	.10	.17 [0.02 to 1.37]
Employment - Employed		10.11 (3)	.02*	
Employment – Undergrad Stu	.91	5.50 (1)	.02*	2.48 [1.16 to 5.30]
Employment – Postgrad Stu	-.51	.84 (1)	.36	.60 [0.20 to 1.80]
Employment – Stu Other	.56	.86 (1)	.35	1.76 [0.53 to 5.82]
Had Consensual Sex? - No	-1.74	5.1 (1)	.02*	.17 [0.04 to 0.79]
Bar/Club Socialise	.42	6.06 (1)	.01*	1.52 [1.10 to 2.13]
Constant	-2.89	16.92 (1)	.00*	.06

*significant result

Overall, being an undergraduate student and report a higher amount of social bar/club behaviour significantly contributed to the model in increasing the risk of sexual contact by intoxication victimisation, whereas never having engaged in consensual sex before was found to reduce the risk of predicting victimisation in the model, thus can be seen as a protective factor. Including these risk factors significantly increased the model's explanation of variance compared to the model of the previous chapter, which only included demographic variables.

Attempted Rape – Intoxication

Regression analysis was also used to determine the predictability of significant variables in determining the differences between victims and non-victims of attempted rape by intoxication. Table 46 shows the variables used in the analysis and their contribution to the model. The initial model was significant $X^2(6)=29.36$, $P<0.01$, meaning that it could correctly differentiate between victims and non-victims of attempted rape by intoxication. The model can correctly explain between 8% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 19% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 91% of cases. Older participants were significantly less likely to report victimisation than younger participants (OR=.86), with a very small effect (Cohen's d=0.08). Those that reported a higher amount of socialising in bars/clubs were significantly

more likely to report victimisation than those who reported less bar/club behaviour (OR=1.75), with a small effect (Cohen's d=0.30).

Table 46 – Initial Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Attempted Rape by Intoxication Including Significant Risk Factors

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Age	-.15	4.10 (1)	.04*	.86 [0.74 to 0.99]
Marital Status - Single		.95 (2)	.62	
Marital Status – Partnered	-.46	.95 (1)	.33	.63 [0.25 to 1.59]
Marital Status – Married	-17.62	.00 (1)	.99	.00 [0.00]
Peer Pressure	.19	.95 (1)	.33	1.21 [0.82 to 1.79]
Bar/Club Socialise	.56	6.01 (1)	.01*	1.75 [1.12 to 2.74]
Hook-Up Q1	.15	,98 (1)	.32	1.17 [0.86 to 1.58]
Constant	-1.47	.61 (1)	.43	.23

*significant result

However, when determining the effect sizes of each variable, age, hook up question 1 and peer pressure failed to meet the minimum effect size of 0.2. Therefore, another regression analysis was conducted without these variables. Table 47 shows the final variables and their contribution to the model. Overall, the final model was significant $X^2(3)=23.10$, $P<0.01$, meaning that it could differentiate between victims and non-victims of attempted rape by intoxication. The model can correctly explain between 7% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 15% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 91.6% of cases. Those who reported a higher level of socialising behaviours in bars/clubs were significantly more likely to report victimisation of attempted rape by intoxication than those that reported less bar/club behaviour (OR=2.05), with a small effect (Cohen's d=0.39).

Table 47 –Final Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Attempted Rape by Intoxication Including Significant Risk Factors

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Marital Status - Single		3.06 (2)	.21	
Marital Status – Partnered	-78	3.06 (1)	.08	.46 [0.19 to 3.12]
Marital Status – Married	-18.72	.00 (1)	.99	.00 [0.00]
Bar/Club Socialise	.72	28.59 (1)	.00*	2.05 [1.34 to 3.12]
Constant	-4.35	28.59 (1)	.00*	.01

*significant result

Reporting higher levels of bar/club social behaviours significantly contributed to predicting victims of attempted rape by intoxication and was able to account for a slightly higher variance compared to the model of the last chapter.

Completed Rape - Intoxication

To identify the predictability of significant variables of determining differences between victims and non-victims of completed rape by intoxication, a regression analysis was conducted. Table 48 shows the variables submitted as part of the analysis and those that significantly contributed to the model. Overall, the model was significant $X^2(14)=48.24$, $P<0.01$, meaning that it could successfully differentiate between victims and non-victims of completed rape by intoxication. The model can correctly explain between 14% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 31% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 92.2% of cases. Those who reported their marital status as partnered were significantly less likely to report victimisation than participants who were single (OR=.19), with a large effect (Cohen's d=-0.91). Moreover, victims were significantly more likely to report a higher number of consensual sexual partners than non-victims (OR=1.07), with a very small effect (Cohen's d= 0.04). Finally, victims of completed rape by intoxication were significantly less likely to report as never sending or receiving an explicit 'sext' message (OR=.02), with a very large effect (Cohen's d=-2.16).

However, the variables consensual sex yes/no, number of consensual sexual partners, socialising behaviours in bars/clubs, Hook-up questions 1, 2 and 3 all failed to meet the significant effect level of 0.2. Therefore, these variables were removed, and another regression analysis was conducted. The final model was significant $X^2(8)=29.50$, $P<0.01$, meaning that it could again differentiate between victims and non-victims of completed assault by intoxication. The model can correctly explain between 8% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 19% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 91.3% of cases. Table 49 shows the variables that significantly contributed to the model. Participants that reported themselves as partnered were significantly less likely to report victimisation than single participants (OR=.28), with a medium to large effect (Cohen's d=-0.70). Moreover, victims were significantly less likely to report never sending or receiving an explicit 'sext' message (OR=.03), with a very large effect (Cohen's d=-1.93).

Table 48 – Initial Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Completed Rape by Intoxication Including Significant Risk Factors

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Marital Status - Single		9.17 (2)	.01*	
Marital Status – Partnered	-1.67	9.17 (1)	.00*	.19 [0.06 to 0.55]
Marital Status – Married	-19.83	.00 (1)	.99	.00 [0.00]
Employment - Employed		2.57 (3)	.46	
Employment – Undergrad Stu	.68	1.51 (1)	.22	1.97 [0.67 to 5.81]
Employment – Postgrad Stu	-.21	.09 (1)	.76	.81 [0.20 to 3.24]
Employment – Stu Other	.19	.04 (1)	.83	1.21 [0.20 to 7.12]
Had Consensual Sex? - No	-19.00	.00 (1)	.99	.00 [0.00]
Number of ConSex Partners	.07	6.15 (1)	.01*	1.07 [1.01 to 1.23]
Bar/Club Socialise	.10	.16 (1)	.69	1.10 [0.68 to 1.75]
Hook-Up Q1	-.03	.02 (1)	.89	.97 [0.64 to 1.46]
Hook Up Q2	-.11	.23 (1)	.63	.89 [0.55 to 1.43]
Hook Up Q4	.08	.18 (1)	.67	1.08 [0.75 to 1.54]
Sexting - Sent		6.12 (3)	.11	
Sexting - Received	-2.10	2.31 (1)	.13	.12 [0.01 to 1.84]
Sexting- Both	-1.95	2.41 (1)	.12	.14 [0.01 to 1.67]
Sexting - Neither	-3.93	5.92 (1)	.01*	.02 [0.00 to 0.47]
Constant	-.40	.06 (1)	.81	.67

*significant result

Table 49 – Final Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Completed Rape by Intoxication Including Significant Risk Factors

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Marital Status - Single		7.07 (2)	.03*	
Marital Status – Partnered	-1.28	7.07 (1)	.01*	.28 [0.11 to 0.71]
Marital Status – Married	-19.43	.00 (1)	.99	.00 [0.00]
Employment - Employed		2.01 (3)	.57	
Employment – Undergrad Stu	.35	.50 (1)	.48	1.42 [0.54 to 3.76]
Employment – Postgrad Stu	-.36	.29 (1)	.59	.70 [0.19 to 2.56]
Employment – Stu Other	-.50	.34 (1)	.56	.60 [0.11 to 3.26]
Sexting - Sent		7.56 (3)	.06	
Sexting - Received	-1.56	1.47 (1)	.23	.21 [0.02 to 2.23]
Sexting - Both	-.94	.65 (1)	.42	.39 [0.04 to 3.88]
Sexting - Neither	-3.50	5.16 (1)	.02*	.03 [0.00 to 0.62]
Constant	-.48	.15 (10	.70	.62

*significant result

Overall, the model predicts that partnered participants and those that never send or receive sext messages are significantly less likely to report victimisation, thus suggesting that having a partner or not engaging in sexting behaviours may be protective factors in regard to completed rape by intoxication victimisation. Including significant risk factors in the model made it significant, which meant it was able to distinguish between victims and non-victims, whereas this was not possible when only including demographical variables in the previous chapter.

4.5 Chapter Discussion

The main aim of this chapter was to identify a number of prevalent risk factors of sexual assault and rape among a young post 18 population in the UK and whether determining if participants engaged or accepted in these factors could increase the variance explained by models predicting sexual assault and rape victimisation. The chapter also aimed to determine if victims or perpetrators accepted different attitudes and beliefs as well as engaged in risk behaviours more than non-victims and perpetrators, and whether these attitudes, beliefs or behaviours had a higher prevalence among student or non-student populations. Through a questionnaire aiming to test these factors and sexual assault/rape victimisation/perpetration prevalence, this aim was met. The following is a discussion of the findings.

Undergraduate Students Compared with other Groups

Due to the plethora of research indicating that undergraduate students are more likely to engage in risky behaviour or accept attitudes and beliefs that will put them at greater risk of sexual assault or rape it was predicted that undergraduate students would have a higher level of factors that were considered risky, such as more accepting attitudes of hook-up behaviours or engage in a higher level of socialising in bars and clubs. However, there was no evidence that one type of participant employment accepted risky attitudes or engaged in riskier behaviours than any other type. Therefore, the hypothesis predicting a difference cannot be retained, meaning that we must retain the null of no difference. These findings provide evidence suggesting that young people aged 18-30 engage in similar behaviours or accept similar attitudes that may increase risk of assault no matter if they are a student or employed full time, which reinforces the explanation given by Buddie and Testa (2005). Instead, undergraduate students may report a higher number of assault and rape experiences due to their freedom to engage in these behaviours more frequently than employed young people because of having less responsibility. For example, a 21-year-old student may go out to a bar or a club every night of the week or as

much as possible, whereas someone who is 21 and employed will not be able to do the same due to their responsibility to work. As undergraduate students can engage in these behaviours or enact on risky attitudes more often, they will be more likely to come into contact with potential perpetrators. As there is evidence that all young 18-30-year-old young people have a similar level in all risk factors, even though support and awareness strategies should address student populations, non-student populations should not be ignored and young people who have either left university or have not chosen to go should receive similar support.

Evidence was also found in this chapter that suggested students in lower years of study had a higher level of reported victimisation in the past 12 months than older students in higher years, specifically those in the first or second year of study, which is potentially due to participants still being in their first year within the last 12 months of when the questionnaire was completed. These findings mean that we can retain the hypothesis suggesting that younger undergraduate students who are in the early stages of their study are more likely to report some type of victimisation. Even though the analysis does not test direct causation it is speculated that because those in the first and second year of university tend to engage in riskier behaviours, such as alcohol consumption (Abbey et al., 2007) or a higher level of social behaviour in bars and clubs (Parker & Williams, 2003) they may be placed at higher risk of sexual victimisation. The speculation is reinforced as first or second years were only significantly found to have a higher reported unwanted sexual contact, unwanted sexual contact by intoxication and attempted coercion experiences, which can be affiliated with alcohol and social behaviours in bars and clubs, such as experiencing unwanted groping or touching on a dance floor. First year students go to university with very little knowledge about the dangers they may face, due to lack of experience or inability to detect danger cues (Franklin, 2010). Moreover, as first year students are bombarded with expectations of attending social events that are either sexualised or where sexual contact is expected (Phipps & Young, 2015), they may be at higher risk of unwanted sexual behaviour. Overall, the inexperience and behaviours that early year students engage in can make them an attractive target for potential perpetrators, which is reflected in the high victim report rate found in this study. However, students should not be expected to change their behaviours to attempt to reduce their chances of victimisation, instead awareness programs should continue but extra support should also be there to try and help reduce unwanted sexual experiences when students may engage in normal social behaviours that are synonymous with university. Potential support is discussed later after full risk factor analysis.

Risk Factors

Victimisation

A higher number of consensual sexual partners has been described previously as a potential increase of sexual violence risk due to the normalisation of behaviours that others may see as danger cues from potential perpetrators, such as trying to get the individual on their own or plying them with drugs and alcohol (Franklin, 2010; Koss, 1985; Koss, 2011; Vicary et al., 1995). The findings from this chapter provide evidence that young, reported victims were more likely to have a higher number of consensual sexual partners, specifically concerning those who reported unwanted sexual contact, rape or completed rape by intoxication experiences. Even though the questionnaire did not test causal links, a number of speculations can be made. The findings could be explained through an individuals increased attractiveness to a perpetrator as they may be more likely to have normalised and engaged in high-risk situations as a result of their sexual engagement with a higher number of consensual partners, such as being alone with strangers or thinking that they are in control until a perpetrator tries to force them into an act they do not want to do. Potential perpetrators who know of an individual's sexual history may also target them as they may incorrectly view them as a guaranteed outlet for their sexual needs, thus increasing the attractiveness of the target. Additionally, those who would normally be considered guardians by the RAT in relation to sexual crimes, such as an individual's friends, may be less likely to support a potential victim if they know of their past sexual history. As the findings of this chapter suggest that having a higher number of sexual partners may increase risk of unwanted sexual contact and rape, it would be beneficial to make sure that awareness of high-risk situations is increased in regard to identifying risk, not only for oneself but for those who can also support others.

Analysis found evidence that reported victims of a number of sexual violence categories were more likely to report higher levels of socialising in bars and clubs. Moreover, this pattern seemed to be significant for experiences where a perpetrator used intoxication as a strategy for attacking their victims. These findings support claims by past research that these environments can put young people at greater risk due to the presence of other factors (Franklin & Menaker, 2016), such as alcohol consumption (Abbey et al., 2007; Lorenz & Ullman, 2016) and pressure to engage in sex from others (Franklin, 2010).

The results indicate that there was a difference between victims and non-victims on their attitudes to hook-ups. Specifically, victims of a number of victimisation categories were

more likely to report a higher agreement to the statement that they like to go on many casual dates with a number of partners. Moreover, victims of unwanted sexual contact and who reported experiencing rape by intoxication were more likely to report a higher acceptance to the statement that they go to social events to solely look for sexual partners.

The analysis suggests that there is a relationship between unwanted sexual contact, attempted coercion and coercion victimisation and the use of a dating app or online dating website. Specifically, there was evidence that victims of these experiences were more likely to have used a dating app before. This pattern may be explained by looking at the nature of meeting someone online for a date. As there is traditionally a long period of online communication with the potential partner there will be greater opportunity for a perpetrator to learn more about their victim or provide more opportunity for them to use coercive language against them. Then, when they are ready to meet, a perpetrator can use this information to convince the victim to engage in unwanted sex, or steadily increase unwanted contact throughout their meeting. The targeting of the victim could be a result of a perpetrators efforts to 'hunt' a vulnerable, attractive victim and get them away from their guardians, as suggested by Maas et al., (2019) and Scannell (2019), or as a discrepancy between both parties' expectations for the date.

An association was also found between participant sexting behaviours and their level of overall victimisation, as well as participants who reported rape victimisation and rape by intoxication victimisation. One potential explanation for this finding is that those who engage in sexting behaviours are seen as easy, vulnerable targets by potential perpetrators as suggested by Cob and Kohno (2017), or the use of sexting creates an incorrect expectation of sex that could lead to rape victimisation if both parties are not willing as suggested by Klettke et al. (2014). On the other hand, as a large portion of participants reported sending and/or receiving a sext message and the significance pattern showed evidence that those who had never engaged in sexting were less likely to report overall and rape victimisation, not engaging in sexting behaviours may be seen as a protective factor against victimisation. However, this does not mean that people should stop sexting to reduce victimisation. Instead, those who reported never engaging in sexting behaviours may also not actively engage in other behaviours that could lead to an increase of assault and rape risk due to personality differences between those who sext and those who do not (Morelli et al., 2020). The findings suggest that sexting is a popular activity among young people and there may be some evidence of an association of risk between sexting and sexual victimisation. However, it is more likely that sexting reacts with other

behaviours and personality traits to increase risk. Nevertheless, awareness strategies should include reiterating to young people that engaging in sexting behaviour does not necessarily indicate sexual consent or intent and that they should be careful sexting with those they have not yet met.

The findings discussed in this chapter found an association between those who reported attempted rape, rape, and attempted rape by intoxication with a higher level of felt peer pressure. The questions on peer pressure were designed to test the pressure that an individual feels from friends and family to gain a romantic partner or sexual partner, as well as the feelings of jealously that one individual may have concerning friends that are in romantic relationships. Even though this association is not fully explained by this questionnaire, the findings provide some evidence that the level of peer pressure felt by an individual could put young people at risk of attempted rape or rape. As this is considered a more serious sexual assault, an explanation for this association could be that higher levels of peer pressure could lead to an individual engaging in riskier behaviours to try and gain a romantic partner, which could lead to dangerous situations that may put them in contact with perpetrators. Engaging in what are considered risky behaviours may be done to conform to current peers that seem to obtain what the individual is looking for, such as drinking or online dating, as suggested by Iwamoto and Smiler (2013) and Widman et al (2016), or they may engage in riskier behaviours to set themselves apart from their peers and show they are superior to them in some way as suggested by McGuire and Leaper (2016). However, as this association was found, further investigation is needed to determine how peer pressure interacts with serious assault victimisation as this will help develop more detailed support and awareness strategies.

A large proportion of participants were found to both watch and masturbate to pornography. This finding provides some evidence that pornography is popular and used by young people in the UK (Foubert et al., 2011). However, as a result of this popularity, no evidence was found to suggest an association with using pornography and sexual victimisation in any category. Instead, the findings suggest that those in the sample who had a greater agreement to hard-core pornography depicting forced sex ‘turning them on’ question were more likely to report at least one type of victimisation. When individual victimisation categories were tested, this pattern was seen for unwanted sexual contact and attempted coercion, but not for attempted or completed rape.

Perpetration

All in all, there was a small sample of reported perpetrators that completed the questionnaire concerning risk factors. As a result, the findings relating to common factors among perpetrators may be limited in their explanatory power. However, obtaining some perpetrator responses can help to identify basic pattern which can offer a potential foundation for future in-depth, perpetrator concentrated research, which will hopefully be conducted and inform future prevention strategies.

Overall, peer pressure did not seem to have an association with any reported perpetration behaviours, excepting unwanted sexual contact. Unwanted sexual contact perpetrators reported a higher level of felt peer pressure, specifically for questions relating to the pressure they feel from others in finding a sexual partner and their belief that they do not want to be the only person int their peer group not having sex.

The findings of this chapter also suggest that reported perpetrators of overall perpetration and unwanted sexual contact behaviours were more likely to have at least 1-2 rape supportive peers in their friendship group, thus also providing some evidence that perpetrators of sexual offences may be motivated to engage in similar behaviour or more likely to conform to the behaviour of these peers, which could potentially explain their motivation to perpetrate unwanted behaviours, as suggested by previous research (Franklin et al., 2012; Schwartz et al., 2001). Even though some evidence was found that reported perpetrators of attempted and completed coercion were also more likely to have peers who accepted sexual violence, this cannot be confirmed due to the low number of participants. Moreover, as only 3 participant reported perpetrating attempted and completed coercion, findings relating to negative peer advice can also not be trusted. More investigation is needed to confirm these findings among a young population in the UK.

There is some evidence from this chapter that those who reported some types of perpetrations were more likely to watch and masturbate to pornography than non-perpetrators. A higher engagement in these behaviours may therefore normalise negative sexual behaviours, such as treating women as sex objects (Carroll et al., 2008; Foubert et al., 2011) and increase an individual's expectation of unrealistic sexual encounters, which can further motivate potential offenders to push for sex even when an individual refuses. As past evidence has also highlighted the association of pornography use and reported sexual assault or rape (Foubert et al., 2011), these findings may reinforce the effect that pornography may have on perpetration

motivation. However, as this study only gained a low number of perpetrators, this pattern will need to be explored in greater depth. Moreover, the association of pornography on rape perpetration needs further exploration as no perpetrators of rape in the last 12 months completed this section of the questionnaire, thus failing to identify the relationship between pornography and rape perpetration.

Reported perpetrators of at least one type of sexual assault or rape behaviour and reported perpetrators of unwanted sexual contact were significantly more likely to report a higher acceptance of rape myths in a number of categories. For overall perpetration, which was the total of reported unwanted sexual contact and attempted/completed coercion perpetration, evidence was found that reported perpetrators were more likely to accept the myths relating to excusing the behaviour of those who commit rape, such as that they did not mean to or that it was not really rape, as well as placing blame on the victim by accepting the 'she asked for it' myths. The association of this acceptance and reported perpetration provide further evidence that an acceptance of these myths allows perpetrators to excuse their behaviour and the behaviours of others, as well as motivate them to offend if they are in situations that include factors that are present in rape myths, such as the way a victim is dressed or how they act (Sussenbach et al., 2013). Those who reported perpetrating unwanted sexual contact were more likely to accept myths relating to a victim 'asking for it' and excusing perpetration behaviour as less serious. As unwanted sexual contact is generally seen as a 'less serious' action than full rape, the acceptance of these myths would help a perpetrator excuse their behaviour, the similar behaviours of others and motivate them to continue as they would believe that they are doing nothing too serious (Sussenbach et al., 2013). Therefore, this chapter has found some evidence supporting previous findings that rape myths are related to reported sexual violence perpetration (Yapp & Quayle, 2018).

Regression Models

Overall, the inclusion of significant risk factor variables increased the explanatory power of each model's ability to determine the variance between victims and non-victims of each sexual violence type investigated. Each model can now account for above 10% of the variances found between victims and non-victims, which is acceptable for human behavioural research (Moksony, 1990). Moreover, each model was able to correctly identify over three quarters of the cases based on the variables tested. The hypothesis stating that risk factors will increase the explanation of variance can therefore be retained. These findings reinforce the idea that

victimisation among young people in the UK is better understood when their behaviours, beliefs and attitudes are included, which highlights the impact that these factors can have on their victimisation. However, as previously stated a victim should never be expected to alter their behaviour even if they may be more vulnerable to being a target of a potential perpetrator. Instead, the analysis of these contributing factors should be scrutinised to determine if extra support can be provided for potential victims or if increasing awareness of these factors can help to decrease victimisation.

One factor that was a significant contributor to a number of regression models was participant reported socialising behaviour in bars and clubs. Bar/Club social behaviour was a significant contributor to a number of the regression models, including reported overall victimisation, unwanted sexual contact, attempted rape, sexual contact by intoxication and attempted rape by intoxication. As discussed previously, engaging in a higher amount of socialising behaviour in bars and clubs potentially increases an individual's vulnerability to victimisation as the behaviour brings them into contact with potential perpetrators, as well as other identified risky elements, such as alcohol and drug consumption. Findings from regression analysis support this claim as, exempting the attempted rape model, reduced bar/club behaviour was a protective factor against victimisation. Moreover, reduced bar/club behaviour was a protective factor against sexual assault and attempted rape victimisation by intoxication, which was expected as these environments are typically synonymous with alcohol consumption. Additionally, for the unwanted sexual contact models, bar/club behaviour appeared a significant contributor along with being an undergraduate student, providing evidence that students may be at higher risk of unwanted sexual contact if they engage in bar/club behaviours more. As there was no difference between young people's employments in regard to bar/club behaviour, this could be a result of an undergraduate student's ability to engage in a higher amount of bar/club behaviour due to their lower level of responsibility, therefore placing them into close contact with potential perpetrators. If bar/club environments currently increase a young person's risk of victimisation, schemes like 'Ask Angela' (apolitical, 2017) will support young people who go to bars and clubs to avoid sexual violence scenarios. However, the findings from this study show that this risk is still prevalent among a young sample in the UK today. Therefore, it would be beneficial to expand investigations to identify which element of going out in bars and clubs creates the most risk so that a higher level of support can be developed for them.

Regression analysis showed that using 1-2 dating apps was a significant contributor to the overall victimisation and unwanted sexual contact model, specifically increasing the likelihood that a participant reported victimisation. In regard to the unwanted sexual contact model, app use was a significant contributor along with being an undergraduate student, bar/club behaviour and a higher indication of hard-core pornography depicting forced sex as 'turning them on'. This is an interesting finding as it potentially suggests that these factors interact to lead to victimisation. Undergraduate students have less responsibility, more time and less likely to be in a serious relationship, which indicate that they are more likely to go to bars and clubs and use dating apps to find a partner (Hobbs et al., 2016).

Never engaging in consensual sex before was found to be a protective factor against unwanted sexual contact by intoxication victimisation. It is generally thought that those who engage in consensual sex at a younger age and have a higher number of reported partners may have a higher chance of victimisation (Franklin, 2010; Koss, 1985; Koss, 2011; Vicary at al., 1995). Therefore, those that have chosen to or have not engaged in consensual sex before may be at less risk because they also do not engage in other risky behaviours. As this finding was found as a protective factor against sexual contact by intoxication victimisation, it suggests that those who have never engaged in consensual sex may also not enter environments where they may become intoxicated. However, these individuals may be put at risk in later life if they decide to engage in these behaviours without the support that young people may obtain. Awareness strategies should therefore still be aimed at all young people to educate them of potential dangers.

Having a high level of agreement to hard-core pornography depicting forced sex was a significant contributor to overall victimisation, unwanted sexual contact, and attempted coercion victimisation, with victims being more likely to report a high acceptance. As previously discussed, finding this type of pornography attractive may mean that an individual may put themselves in situations where they are more at risk of becoming a victim, either through placing themselves in contact with a higher number of potential, motivated offenders, increasing their attractiveness as a target due to the type of explicit material they enjoy, or through the normalisation of violent behaviours (Franklin, 2013; Malamuth et al., 2012). However, this factor was only a significant contributor to victimisation models of what is classed as less serious assault and coerced crimes, and not for serious rape experiences. This finding would suggest that enjoying hard-core pornography that depicted rape may put

individuals at greater risk of some assault, but there is no evidence that it leads to serious rape experiences.

Sexting behaviours were found to be a significant contributor and protective factor in the rape predictive model, with those who had never engaged in sexting as less likely to report victimisation. However, the evidence from these findings would suggest that it is unlikely that engaging in sexting puts young people at risk of rape, as suggested by past research (Maas et al., 2019). This is because no evidence was found that sending/receiving explicit messages were associated with the rape victimisation, instead a large number of participants reported that they engaged in the behaviour. Therefore, those who do not engage in sexting behaviours may have other protective factors in place that reduce their risk of victimisation, such as behavioural or personality differences (Morelli, et al., 2020).

The regression models found similar demographical factor contributions as the last chapter. Women were more likely to report overall victimisation, which is reflective of findings from similar research (Conley et al., 2017; CSEW, 2017; Elliot et al., 2004; Fisher & Cullen., 2000; Kimmerling et al., 2002; NUS, 2014; NUS, 2019; ONS, 2017). Marital status was again found as a protective factor for overall victimisation, rape and completed rape by intoxication, which suggests that having a partner or being married helps to avoid victimisation as they have a greater amount of responsibility to their partner, or their partner acts as a guardian against potential perpetrators. Including bar/club behaviour in the analysis removed marital status as a significant contributor for attempted rape and attempted rape by intoxication. This could potentially be explained by the potential victim attending bars or clubs for social events without their partner, thus removing that level of guardianship. Being an undergraduate student was also a significant contributor to overall victimisation, but more specifically sexual contact and sexual contact by intoxication victimisation. When risk factors were included, students were still more likely to be victimised for unwanted sexual contact, such as groping or touching, but were no longer a significant contributor to attempted and completed rape by intoxication. As all participant employment did not differ between risk taking behaviour, this finding could mean that non-students also suffer rape victimisation by intoxication by a similar level as students as they engage in similar behaviours. Therefore, students may have a higher unwanted sexual contact victimisation rate as they have less responsibility and can freely engage in behaviours where unwanted sexual contact commonly occurs, such as a club. A deeper level of investigation is needed to confirm this finding, which will help support students and non-students in engaging in the behaviour they want with less risk of assault and rape.

4.6 Chapter Conclusion

By exploring the potential factors that may increase a young person's risk of sexual assault or rape, a number of factors were found to be significantly reported to a higher degree by victims than non-victims. When these factors were included in a regression analysis, they significantly increased the amount of variance that could be explained between reported victims and non-victims of a number of sexual assault and rape experiences. Moreover, no evidence was found to indicate that undergraduate students solely engaged in risk taking behaviour when compared to non-students, which again suggests that all young people engage in factors that may increase their risk. However, undergraduate students may have more opportunity to engage in risky behaviours more often due to their lifestyle, although non-victims do also suffer victimisation. Moreover, this chapter helped to highlight some limited evidence concerning factors that may increase perpetrator motivation, which can be built upon in future investigations.

The findings of this chapter only identify basic associations between identified risk-taking behaviour and reported victimisation without determining causation, while also not fully exploring why engaging in one behaviour may increase an individual's chance of risk. A more in-depth, qualitative method will therefore be used in a later chapter to fully identify why significant risk factors may lead a young person to become a victim of sexual violence.

Chapter 5 – Attitudes Towards, Understanding and Communicating Sexual Consent

5.1 Chapter Introduction

The final risk area of the conceptual framework that has been explored as part of the quantitative questionnaire is the role that a young person's understanding of consent, as well as their attitude towards communicating sexual consent, and how this relates to sexual assault and rape victimisation and perpetration among a young sample in the UK. Gaining and communicating consent to a sexual act is a complicated process with many potential pitfalls that can lead to negative consequences, such as misunderstanding. Specifically, an individual's attitude and behaviour towards gaining and obtaining consent and the extent that they understand what constitutes as a consensual encounter can affect how they look to communicate that consent with their partner. Past research has investigated how miscommunications of consent and negative attitudes towards consent can lead to a higher risk of unwanted and coerced sexual assault and rape acts (Canan, Jozkowski & Crawford, 2016; Jozkowski & Humphreys, 2014). In relation to the theoretical framework of the RAT, the aim of this chapter is to determine the extent that an individual's attitude towards consent may be related to sexual assault, rape victimisation/perpetration and the differences between students and non-students, as well as how these attitudes may increase vulnerability to victimisation or motivation to perpetrate sexual crimes. Moreover, the chapter looks at the extent that a young person's understanding of consent (by UK Law) relates to increased vulnerability to sexual assault victimisation or motivation to sexual assault perpetration. Building on past chapter findings, any significant relationships between consent attitudes and understanding variables were also included within regression analysis to determine the extent that they improve the predictive power of the models.

Additionally, as some research indicates that individuals may not report their victimisation or label their experience as rape due to a lack of knowledge about consent (Dardis, Kraft & Gidycz, 2017), this chapter also explores the relationship between an individual's knowledge about consent, their actual rape experiences, and the way they label their experiences. This will help identify whether a lack of consent knowledge may be a factor related to a low report rate of rape among a young population in the UK.

5.2 What do we mean by 'Consent?'

In the UK, the Sexual Offences Act 2003 defines sexual consent as the agreement by choice to a sexual act if the individual has the freedom and capacity to make that choice. People can consent to one consensual act, e.g., vaginal, anal, or oral penetration, but not another and consent can be withdrawn at any time. Simply put, consent is when one individual agrees to a sexual act with another when it is their choice, and they can legally and freely make that choice without coercion, force, or duress.

However, even though consenting to a sexual situation seems to be a simple affair there is often confusion over whether some sexual encounters are consensual or can be classed as assault or rape, usually because of the influence of a number of situational and behavioural factors (Jozkowski & Humphreys, 2014; Muhlenhard, Humphreys, Jozkowski & Peterson, 2016). Moreover, some researchers believe that sexual situations are more complex than a simple agreement and that individuals must negotiate consent with a new partner while avoiding embarrassing misinterpretations and negative impacts to their reputations (Dardis et al., 2017; Jozkowski, Marcantonio & Hunt, 2017). As such, an individual's attitude towards gaining consent or their understanding of what constitutes consent may lead to unwanted sexual encounters if they differ to that of their partner (Dardis et al., 2017; Jozkowski et al., 2017; Muhlenhard et al., 2016).

Moreover, some researchers suggest that an individual's consensual agreement to a situation may not be the only determining factor to whether the encounter is seen as assault or rape. Hills, Seib, Pleva, Smythe, Gosling and Cole (2019) suggest that consent, wantedness and pleasure are all determinant factors to whether someone classes an encounter as assault or rape. For example, in one of their experiments exploring responses to vignettes on rape, Hills et al. (2019) found that individuals were less likely to class a non-consensual scenario as rape if there were elements of wantedness and pleasure, such as a positive physical reaction e.g., an orgasm, in the scenario. The term wantedness was originally coined by Peterson and Muehlenhard (2007) and suggests that wanting to engage in and consenting to a sexual encounter are different concepts. For example, individuals may consent to sexual acts that they do not want to perform, which could be done to make their partner happy or protect their partners ego, or they may not consent to wanted sexual acts, which may be done to protect their reputation (Hills et al., 2019; Peterson & Muehlenhard, 2007). Consequently, these factors may confound an individual's ability to clearly identify the legality of their or another's actions,

which could lead to a sexual assault, rape, or incorrect judgement about a questionable sexual encounter, such as if they were a member of a jury (Hills et al., 2019).

5.3 Theoretical Models Linking Consent and Sexual Victimisation/Perpetration

There are a number of different theoretical models that suggest that an individual's beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours surrounding consent can increase an individual's vulnerability of sexual assault or rape or increase an individual's motivation to commit sexual assault or rape.

Miscommunication

Firstly, some researchers have argued that sexual victimisation is a result of a miscommunication of consent between two people (Dardis et al., 2017; Muehlenhard, Humphreys, Jozkowski & Peterson., 2016). The miscommunication of consent has been suggested to be a result of several attitudinal and behavioural differences between men and women (Dardis et al., 2017). One such difference is the way that women and men communicate their consent or intent to engage in sexual behaviour. Generally, men have been found to communicate and look for consent through non-verbal means, such as through the use of body language, whereas women have been found to prefer verbal communication while they are trying to indicate consent (Jozkowski, Peterson, Sanders, Dennis & Reece, 2014). For example, in their study of sexual communication among US college students, Jozkowski et al., (2014) found that women used a higher level of verbal indicators of consent, and they believed that silence or no reply would be an acceptable communication of non-consent, whereas male participants were found to be a lot more reliant on non-verbal means of communication, such as physical responses and their partner not moving away. In the same study Jozkowski et al., (2014) also found that men were a lot more likely to find silence from their potential partner as an indicator of ambiguous consent or that they should continue to push for consent. The example from this study, as well as others, shows the danger that a miscommunication of consent can have. Specifically, if a woman thinks that their silence indicates a clear non-consent, whereas a man believes that it is an indicator that they should try harder for sex or an indicator of consent, the miscommunication could then lead to an unwanted sexual experience, assault, or rape.

Additionally, Abbey (1982) found in their investigation of gender interpretations of sexual flirting that men were significantly more likely to misinterpret friendly gestures from women as sexual interest. Moreover, men have been found to overestimate a woman's sexual

intentions within social settings, such as at parties and on nights out (Lofgreen, Mattson, Wagner, Ortiz & Johnson, 2017). Therefore, if men are more likely to misinterpret a woman's friendliness for sexual flirting and overestimate their interest in sex, they may assume sexual consent through non-verbal signals and push for more sexual activity, which could then lead to an assault or rape situation if further communication by the woman is not given.

A commonly held belief of men that could also explain a sexual assault or rape through a miscommunication of consent is the belief of 'token resistance' (Muehlenhard et al., 2016). Token resistance is the idea that women will communicate non-consent even when they want to engage in sex either because they want a man or other individual to work harder and give the woman more attention or to protect their reputation, so they are not seen negatively by others, such as being labelled as 'easy' or a 'slut' (Shafer, Ortiz, Thompson & Huemmer, 2018). Those who accept the idea of token resistance run the risk of misconstruing a genuine indication of refusal for a challenge, which could then lead to an unwanted encounter, assault, or rape situation if they continued to push for sex (Canan et al., 2016). As women have also been found to accept a certain amount of unwanted sexual contact throughout their lives (Jozkowski et al., 2014) the perpetuation of the token resistance belief could be reinforced in individuals if the women they believe are offering token resistance eventually give in, even if it is just to end an embarrassing or awkward situation.

Therefore, the miscommunication of consent during sexual situations could increase the risk of an assault or rape to occur. Other factors may also interact with consent miscommunication to increase the risk of assault victimisation or perpetration, such as alcohol/drug use and situational contexts (Dardis et al., 2017). Moreover, there are many prevention and awareness strategies that are based around educating individuals when to identify if someone is refusing or agreeing to sexual acts, such as the 'no means no' campaign in the US (Jozkowski & Humphreys, 2014), or the 'I heart Consent' programme in the UK (NUS, 2014). However, there are a number of issues with the miscommunication model. Firstly, suggesting that assault and rape can sometimes be a result of a miscommunication between two people suggests that the blame partially lies with the victim (Muehlenhard et al., 2016). As victim blame has been found to lead to lower reports of crimes, as well as providing excuses for the behaviours of perpetrators of sexual crimes and victims receiving less support than they should (O'Bryne et al., 2007), describing an assault or rape as a result of a miscommunication can have dangerous and problematic consequences (Jozkowski &

Humphreys, 2014). Additionally, some researchers suggest that young people have the capacity to clearly understand consent and refusal cues from another through non-verbal body language and situational context variables, which is referred to as 'tacit knowledge' (O'Bryne et al., 2007). Therefore, this explanation argues that women do in fact offer clear refusal cues and men are able to accurately interpret these cues, which some men choose to ignore (Jozkowski & Humphreys, 2014). Moreover, Jozkowski and Humphreys (2014) suggest that there would be plenty of time between misinterpreting sexual consent and a sexual assault occurring, which would logically allow any mistakes caused by miscommunication to be cleared up. For example, there would be plenty of time for a woman to provide further and more forceful refusal cues before a man pushed too far. Instead, those that claim unwanted, forced sexual situations are caused by a miscommunication of consent could be using it as an excuse for their behaviour and to try to reduce the seriousness of an unwanted, forced experience.

Stereotypical Gender Roles

Another potential explanation of how consent negotiation can lead to assault or rape situations are the acceptance of traditional, stereotypical gender roles. Past research indicates that men are traditionally seen as sexual initiators, whereas women are seen as sexual gatekeepers (Jozkowski et al., 2017). Simply put, those that accept this stereotype believe that it is a woman's job to indicate consent to a sexual act or refuse a man's advances, whereas it is a man's responsibility to suggest and initiate the sexual act. Therefore, the acceptance of this common belief will place a large amount of responsibility on women to give clear, definite refusals when they do not consent to a proposed sexual act. However, identified social convention suggests that it is inappropriate to offer direct, harsher refusals and instead social expectations would dictate that women will have to let men down gently (Hills et al., 2019). Identified reasons that women have given for needing to use gentler methods of refusal include protecting the man's ego, protecting friendships or current relationships, and avoiding uncomfortable situations (Jozkowski et al., 2017). As men tend to see ambiguous sexual refusals as a challenge or indication that they have to try harder to gain what they want (Jozkowski et al, 2017), gentle refusals could lead to unwanted sexual acts, assault, or rape. Some women have also previously reported giving in to unwanted sexual acts as they feel that they owe a man, either because the man has bought them something, such as alcohol, or they have spent time with them (Jozkowski et al., 2017). Therefore, giving reluctant consent to an unwanted sexual act may be viewed as normal behaviour for some women, either due to their

incorrect beliefs that they ‘owe’ a man for something the man has done for them or because they believe that it is just a part of normal life.

Moreover, traditional gender roles suggest a sexual double standard between men and women (Jozkowski & Humphreys, 2014; Jozkowski et al., 2017). Men are traditionally encouraged to explore and express their sexuality as much as they want and are traditionally expected to be sexually active from a young age, commonly seen as ‘oversexed’ (Shafer et al., 2018). For example, men feel a large amount of pressure to lose their virginity and engage in regular sexual contact, failure to do so can lead to negative reactions from peers which a man may try to avoid. On the other hand, traditional gender roles suggest that women are generally more ‘undersexed’ and should not actively engage in sexual behaviour, instead they should give consent. These views stem from the idea that women need to be conservative with their sexual behaviour to be considered respectable or a ‘good girl’ (Canan et al., 2016). Alternatively, women who freely explore their sexuality to the same degree as men are viewed negatively by those who accept traditional roles and can receive negative labels, such as ‘easy’ or ‘slutty’. This sexual double standard means that women may feel that they have to be more reserved when consenting to sexual acts to protect their reputations, whereas men could believe that women will refuse sexual contact at least once to make themselves seem more respectable and that they only need to keep pushing for a sexual act to happen. In a qualitative study of college students in the US, Jozkowski et al (2017) found a number of sub-themes that were commonly accepted by both male and female participants that reinforce the sexual double standard. Men were found to accept gender and cultural norms that reinforce the idea that they should think of gaining sex and consent as a competition and that men should try and convince a woman to consent if they give ambiguous refusals. Jozkowski et al. (2017) found that their male participants also preferred ambiguous refusals as it gave the man an excuse to keep pushing and claim a miscommunication if the woman became angry. Moreover, Jozkowski et al (2017) found that both male and female participants accepted that women may feel like they owe a man sex if they put in the work, that women should put men’s needs above their own, and be nice to protect a man’s ego, as well as suggest that women who engage in a higher number of sexual encounters are less desirable than women who don’t to a common belief that ‘good girls’ don’t have sex. In fact, a number of female participants in the Jozkowski et al. (2017) study admitted to pretending to be drunk so they could engage in sexual behaviours but keep their reputation intact, whereas others admitted to refusing sexual advances that they wanted to engage in to again protect their reputation. The qualitative results from this study

clearly support the sexual double standard that exists between men and women, highlighting the pressure on women to protect their reputation while encouraging men to continue to push for sex, while ignoring ambiguous refusals.

Traditional views surrounding consent and the effect that these stereotypical beliefs can have on assault and rape experiences are similar to that of rape myth acceptance. Both agree that perpetrator behaviour can be excused if female victims behave in certain ways or have characteristics that would normally see them as promiscuous or stereotypically not a victim, thus both can increase victim blame. The stereotypical gender role explanation also moves giving partial responsibility for communicating consent away from the victim and suggests the acceptance of these roles can explain how attitudes and behaviours towards consent can increase victimisation risk (Canan et al., 2016; Shafer et al., 2018). However, one major issue with the explanation is that it does not suggest how traditional gender roles concerning consent as a risk factor relate within same-sex assaults or rapes, as traditional gender roles are only concerned about consent communication between a man and a woman. As some research has found that there is no difference between the sexual consent communication between mixed and same sex partners (Beres, Herold & Maitland, 2004) the role that the acceptance of traditional stereotypes has within same sex consent negotiation and how that relates to sexual assault and rape experiences will allow a greater understanding of assault and rape within same sex situations. Overall, traditional gender role acceptance offers a greater explanation of how consent negotiation can increase the risk of an individual experiencing unwanted sex, sexual assault or rape or motivate an individual to push or force someone into an unwanted experience.

5.4 Understanding Consent as a Risk Factor

The belief and acceptance of traditional gender roles, as well as other stereotypical views, such as rape myths, could lead to confusion when an individual is trying to determine the extent that a sexual experience is consensual between two people. Within UK Law, a sexual encounter is considered a crime if one individual did not consent by choice to the sexual act and there is no reasonable belief that the individual perpetrating the act thought that their victim was consenting (Sexual Offences Act, 2003). Accepting traditional gender roles and stereotypes, as well as rape myths, could potentially skew an individual's perceptions of whether a scenario is consensual or not by providing excuses for the perpetrator's actions due to situational factors or the behaviour of the victims. For example, ambiguous refusals by victims, previous sexual history between the victim and perpetrator, or where the sexual act occurs can seem like a

reasonable belief of consent to some. As such, individuals who accept these beliefs may not have a full understanding of when a sexual encounter is consensual or not. Some research within the US has indicated that a lack of understanding of what constitutes a consensual act can lead to low bystander intervention attitudes, negative sexual experiences, and lead to individuals not reporting their experiences to the authorities (Hust, Rodgers & Bayly, 2017; Muehlenhard et al, 2016). Therefore, it is important to identify the relationship between the level of understanding an individual has about what constitutes a consensual act and assault or rape victimisation or perpetration experiences as it will be able to inform adequate prevention and awareness strategies to reduce the risk of individuals experiencing these crimes.

Additionally, understanding that a sexual encounter is consensual or is classed as assault or rape can be dependent on the presence or absence of characteristics that are traditionally associated with assault or rape. For example, experiences where the perpetrator uses physical force, drugs/alcohol, or aggressive verbal threats to engage in sexual acts are considered to be traditionally associated with rape, whereas sexual encounters where the perpetrator uses less aggressive coercive language or where the victim does not give definitive refusals or freezes during the act are not characteristics that are commonly associated with rape or assault (Dardis et al., 2017). An individual's understanding of whether a situation is consensual or not may then be determinate on the level of detail or inclusion of traditional/expected characteristics to identify it as an assault or rape. The differences between a young person's understanding of assault when scenarios include these more obvious characteristics versus scenarios that include subtler assault and rape characteristics will show how the presence or absence of these characteristics may affect an individual's interpretation of a situation. Consequently, the way an individual labels an experience may also lead them to incorrectly label their own negative experiences as less serious or lead to a greater victimisation risk if they do not think they are in danger (Dardis et al., 2017; Muehlenhard et al, 2016; Rosenthal, 1997).

However, as far as the author is aware, identifying the relationship between consent understanding and sexual assault and rape victimisation or perpetration, as well victimisation versus self-labelling the experience, has had little academic attention in regard to investigating these issues among a young population in the UK. Moreover, this relationship has had little research attention in regard to investigating the difference between student and non-student populations. Part of this chapter will therefore look to investigate this relationship and how it

relates to previously identified risk factors that have been found to significantly contribute to sexual victimisation or perpetration.

5.5 Attitudes towards Consent as a Risk Factor

This chapter will also investigate the relationship between those with different attitudes towards gaining or communicating consent and their sexual assault and rape victimisation or perpetration experiences. Throughout this chapter the acceptance of traditional gender roles and stereotypes has been discussed in relation to how it may affect how individuals understand, communicate and act on consent in sexual situations, specifically by increasing the risk of assault or rape victimisation or increasing motivation to perpetrate sexual crimes. However, the attitudes that individuals can have towards gaining and communicating consent, which can also be informed by traditional gender roles and stereotypes, can also be a potential risk factor and increase sexual assault and rape vulnerability. The acceptance of certain negative attitudes towards consent may increase the likelihood of a perpetrator ignoring refusals and committing assault or rape (Shafer et al., 2018).

Humphreys and Herold (2007) looked to develop a scale, known as the Sexual Consent Scale (SCS), to measure the attitudes and behaviours that young people have around sexual consent including how necessary is explicit sexual consent, the influence of certain variables on consent behaviour, such as relationship and contextual variables, how much they discuss sexual consent and what behavioural approaches young people take in regard to consent. However, Humphreys and Brousseau (2010) looked to revise the SCS using the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) to provide a theoretical framework for the scale and to help validate the scales' ability to identify sexual consent behaviour, which can be used to investigate a number of potential issues in society, such as the role of consent attitudes and behaviours in relation to sexual assault or rape victimisation or perpetration risks. The TPB suggests that an individual's intentions are the driving force behind their behaviours and their attitudes can predict an individual's intentions (Ajzen, 1985). Humphreys and Brousseau (2010) believed that their scale could predict an individual's intention to gain consent through the use of the TPB's core principles and the previous findings of the original SCS (Humphreys and Herold, 2007) through five main subscales. These are perceived behaviour control, positive/negative attitudes towards consent, direct/indirect attitudes towards gaining consent, acceptance of common consent norms, and awareness and discussion of consent.

Overall, the SCS-R scale measures young people's attitudes to consent, which according to the TPB, should indicate an individual's behaviours related to consent through intention.

5.6 Chapter Aims, Objectives and Hypotheses

The main aim of this chapter is to explore potential risk factors to sexual assault victimisation and perpetration regarding how young people in the UK's understanding of what constitutes sexual consent and attitudes towards communicating consent with a potential sexual partner.

5.6.1 Chapter Objectives

- To determine whether there are any significant differences between victims and non-victims, as well as perpetrators and non-perpetrators in relation to sexual consent attitudes.
- To identify significant differences within identified demographics in relation to consent understanding and sexual consent attitudes.
- To determine if there are any significant differences between victims and non-victims, as well as perpetrators and non-perpetrators in relation to consent understanding.
- Identify the relationship between self-labelling an experience of rape, reported rape prevalence and consent understanding or attitudes towards consent.
- Identify whether significant variables in relation to consent understanding or sexual consent attitudes affect the predictive power of a model to correctly identify between victims or non-victims.

Through the exploration of previous literature, several predictions can be made in regard to consent understanding, consent attitudes and victimisation/perpetration experiences.

5.6.2 Chapter Hypotheses

- There will be a significant difference between victims and non-victims, as well as perpetrators and non-perpetrators, of all sexual assault and rape experiences based on their attitudes towards sexual consent as measured by the SCS-R.
- There will be a significant relationship between rape myth subscale scores and SCS-R attitude subscale scores.
- Victims and perpetrators of sexual crimes and coercion will have significantly less understanding of when a scenario is consensual, or when it would be classed as a crime

in UK Law, when scenarios lack obvious details that are usually expected in a sexual crime.

- Consent understanding will significantly differ between victims and non-victims of the measured sexual assault and rape experiences, as well as reported perpetrators and non-perpetrators of the same assault and rape types.

5.7 Chapter Method

Sample

Overall, 366 participants completed the consent attitudes and understanding section of the questionnaire. Participants were aged between 18- 30 (M= 23.18, SD= 3.64). There were 137 participants aged between 18-21, 129 aged between 22-25 and 100 aged between 26-30. The vast majority of participants were female (84.5%, N=305), with males only making up 15.3% of the sample (N=56).

The majority of participants reported themselves as single/never been married (47.8%, N=175) followed by partnered/never been married (41%, N=150) and married/domestic partnership (10.1%, N=37). Two participants were reported as separated and 1 was recorded as divorced, although due to small numbers these were omitted from analysis. In regard to employment, the majority of participants were employed (35.5%, N=126), followed by undergraduate students (34.4%, N=122), postgraduate students (21%, N=77) and 'other' students (8.2%, N=30). Ten participants reported themselves as unemployed and 1 was currently involved in an apprenticeship. However, because numbers for these employments were low, they were omitted from analysis.

Measures

To complete this chapter's data analysis, participant responses of demographics, the SES-R, the SCS-R, vignette questions and rape myths were used from the quantitative questionnaire as outlined in Chapter 2.

5.8 Chapter Results

5.8.1 Reported Assault and Rape Victimisation/Perpetration

Table 50 and 51 show the reported prevalence of sexual assault and rape victimisation by demographical category for those that completed up until the end of the consent section in the questionnaire, whereas Table 52 shows the reported prevalence of sexual assault and rape perpetration by demographical category for those that completed the consent section of the questionnaire. As with past chapters, reported participant experiences for specific assault/rape types may not match overall reported figures due to participants reporting multiple victimisation/perpetration experiences.

SCS-R - Victimisation

To determine the differences between reported victims and non-victims for each sexual assault or rape category and their attitudes towards gaining and communicating consent, several inferential tests were conducted. Table 53 shows the SCS-R scores by victimisation category. Firstly, to determine whether each SCS-R attitudinal sub-scale met or violated the assumption of normality Q-Q plots were generated and Kologorov-Smirnov tests of normality were conducted. The results of the Kologorov-Smirnov tests indicated that all sub-categories violated normality; including, perceived behavioural control ($D(366)=.11$, $p=0.00$), positive attitudes towards consent ($D(366)=.08$, $p=0.00$), indirect/direct behavioural approach to consent ($D(366)=.07$, $p=0.00$), sexual consent norms ($D(366)=.07$, $p=0.00$), and awareness and discussion ($D(366)=.09$, $p=0.00$). However, as the sample size was large for reported victims and non-victims of assault/rape, parametric t-tests were again used as they are stronger and can be justified through the central limit theorem. After making the appropriate corrections for data that violated the assumption of homogeneity of variance through a Levene's test, independent sample t-tests showed that there was no significant difference between the perceived behavioural control scores between victims and non-victims of overall victimisation (Levene's=$p=0.47$; $t(364)=-1.38, p>0.05$), sexual contact (Levene's=$p=0.39$; $t(364)=-1.62, p>0.05$), attempted coercion (Levene's=$p=0.85$; $t(363)=.07, p>0.05$), coercion (Levene's=$p=0.85$; $t(364)=-.85, p>0.05$), rape (Levene's=$p=0.55$; $t(364)=-1.79, p>0.05$), and sexual contact by intoxication (Levene's=$p=0.55$; $t(359)=-1.39, p>0.05$). However, victims were significantly more likely to report that they had less behavioural control in a consent situations than non-victims of attempted rape (Levene's=$p=0.52$; $t(364)=-2.94, p<0.01$, CI [-0.92 to -0.18]) with a small to medium effect (Cohen's $d=0.49$), attempted rape by intoxication

rape (Levene's=p=0.66; t(363)=-2.70,p<0.01, CI [-0.97 to -0.15]) with a medium effect (Cohen's d=0.5), and completed rape by intoxication (Levene's= p=0.37; t(363)=-2.18,p<0.05, CI [-0.83 to -0.04]) with a small effect (Cohen's d=0.39).

There was no significant difference between the victims and non-victims of any victimisation category and their score on the positive/negative attitudes towards gaining consent scale for overall victimisation (Levene's=p=0.69; t(364)=-.36,p>0.05), sexual contact (Levene's=p=0.75; t(364)=.30,p>0.05), attempted coercion (Levene's=p=0.89; t(363)=.91,p>0.05), coercion (Levene's=p=0.83; t(364)=.19,p>0.05), attempted rape (Levene's=p=0.20; t(364)=.59,p>0.05), rape (Levene's=p=0.96; t(364)=-.53,p>0.05), sexual contact by intoxication (Levene's=p=0.57; t(359)=-.41,p>0.05), attempted rape by intoxication (Levene's=p=0.29; t(363)=1.31,p>0.05), and completed rape by intoxication (Levene's=p=0.88; t(364)=-1.05,p>0.05). These results show that no evidence was found to suggest that victims of any type of assault or rape differed to non-victims on their positive or negative attitudes towards consent.

Table 50– Prevalence of Sexual Assault Victimisation within the Last 12 Months by Demographic

	Type of Sexual Assault Victimisation											
	Overall Victimisation		*Sexual Contact*		*Attempted Coercion*		*Coercion*		*Attempted Rape*		*Rape*	
	Victim	*Non-victim*	Victim	*Non-victim*	Victim	*Non-victim*	Victim	*Non-victim*	Victim	*Non-victim*	Victim	*Non-victim*
Variable												
Gender*:												
Male	11 (19.6)	45 (80.4)	11 (19.6)	45 (80.4)	4 (7.1)	52 (92.9)	1 (1.8)	55 (98.2)	4 (7.1)	52 (92.9)	3 (5.4)	53 (94.6)
Female	103 (33.8)	202 (66.2)	87 (28.5)	218 (71.5)	31 (10.2)	273 (89.8)	28 (9.2)	277 (90.8)	35 (11.5)	270 (88.5)	41 (13.4)	264 (86.6)
Employment*:												
Employed	32 (25.4)	94 (74.6)	26 (20.6)	100 (79.4)	10 (7.9)	116 (92.1)	11 (8.7)	115 (91.3)	12 (9.5)	114 (90.5)	13 (10.3)	113 (89.7)
Undergrad Student	55 (45.1)	67 (54.9)	49 (40.2)	73 (59.8)	13 (10.7)	109 (89.3)	8 (6.6)	114 (93.4)	20 (16.4)	102 (83.6)	20 (16.4)	102 (83.6)
Postgraduate Student	16 (20.8)	61 (79.2)	12 (15.6)	65 (84.4)	7 (9.2)	69 (90.8)	6 (7.8)	71 (92.2)	5 (6.5)	72 (93.5)	7 (9.1)	70 (90.9)
Student (Other)	8 (26.7)	22 (73.3)	8 (26.7)	22 (73.3)	3 (10)	27 (90)	1 (3.3)	29 (96.7)	0 (0)	30 (100)	1 (3.3)	29 (96.7)
Marital Status:*												
Single/NM	69 (39.4)	106 (60.6)	56 (32)	119 (68)	20 (11.4)	155 (88.6)	16 (9.1)	159 (90.9)	23 (13.1)	152 (86.9)	29 (16.6)	146 (83.4)
Partnered/NM	42 (28)	108 (72)	39 (26)	111 (74)	12 (8.1)	137 (91.9)	9 (6)	141 (94)	14 (9.3)	136 (90.7)	13 (8.7)	137 (91.3)
Married/Domestic	3 (8.1)	34 (91.9)	3 (8.1)	34 (91.9)	2 (5.4)	35 (94.6)	3 (8.1)	34 (91.9)	2 (5.4)	35 (94.6)	2 (5.4)	35 (94.6)
Age: M (SD)	21.79 (3.03)	23.82 (3.73)	21.73 (3.07)	23.72 (3.70)	21.74 (2.86)	23.34 (3.69)	22.55 (2.76)	23.23 (3.71)	21.51 (2.59)	23.28 (3.70)	22.11 (3.09)	23.33 (3.69)

*All results are reported by participant number and percentage of the demographic category.

Table 51 – Prevalence of Sexual Assault Perpetration within the Last 12 Months by Demographic

	Type of Sexual Assault Perpetration											
	Overall Perpetration		*Sexual Contact*		*Attempted Coercion*		*Coercion*		*Attempted Rape*		*Rape*	
	Perpetrator	*Non-Perpetrator*	Perpetrator	*Non-Perpetrator*	Perpetrator	*Non-Perpetrator*	Perpetrator	*Non-Perpetrator*	Perpetrator	*Non-Perpetrator*	Perpetrator	*Non-Perpetrator*
Variable												
Gender*:												
Male	6 (10.7)	50 (89.3)	5 (8.9)	51 (91.1)	1 (1.8)	55 (98.2)	1 (1.8)	55 (98.2)	0 (0)	1 (0.3)	0 (0)	56 (100)
Female	13 (4.3)	291 (95.7)	10 (3.3)	293 (96.7)	2 (0.7)	302 (99.3)	2 (0.7)	302 (99.3)	6 (100)	303 (99.7)	1 (0.3)	303 (99.7)
Employment*:												
Employed	5 (4)	121 (96)	5 (4)	120 (96)	0 (0)	126 (100)	1 (0.8)	125 (99.2)	0 (0)	126 (100)	0 (0)	126 (100)
Undergrad Student	4 (3.3)	117 (96.7)	2 (1.7)	119 (98.3)	1 (0.8)	120 (99.2)	1 (0.8)	120 (99.2)	0 (0)	121 (100)	1 (0.8)	120 (99.2)
Postgraduate Student	6 (7.8)	71 (92.2)	5 (6.5)	72 (93.5)	2 (2.6)	75 (97.4)	1 (1.3)	76 (98.7)	1 (1.3)	76 (98.7)	0 (0)	77 (100)
Student (Other)	2 (6.7)	28 (93.3)	2 (6.7)	28 (93.3)	0 (0)	30 (100)	0 (0)	30 (100)	0 (0)	30 (0)	0 (0)	30 (100)
Marital Status:*												
Single/NM	9 (5.1)	166 (94.9)	7 (4)	168 (96)	0 (0)	175 (100)	1 (0.6)	174 (99.4)	0 (0)	175 (100)	1 (0.6)	174 (99.4)
Partnered/NM	6 (4)	143 (96)	4 (2.7)	144 (97.3)	1 (0.7)	148 (99.3)	0 (0)	149 (100)	1 (0.7)	148 (99.3)	0 (0)	149 (100)
Married/Domestic	3 (8.1)	34 (91.9)	3 (8.1)	34 (91.9)	2 (5.4)	35 (94.6)	1 (2.7)	36 (97.3)	0 (0)	37 (100)	0 (0)	37 (100)
Age: M (SD)	23.63 (3.59)	23.16 (3.65)	24.40 (3.46)	23.13 (3.65)	26 (3.46)	23.17 (3.64)	24.33 (4.72)	23.18 (3.64)	22	23.19 (3.65)	18	23.20 (3.64)

*All results are reported by participant number and percentage of the demographic category.

Moreover, no significant difference was found between victims and non-victims of any victimisation category and their score determining whether they prefer direct or indirect communication of consent after correcting for whether the data violated or met the homogeneity of variance assumption; including overall victimisation (Levene's=p=0.53; t(364)=.37,p>0.05), sexual contact (Levene's=p=0.11; t(364)=-.48,p>0.05), attempted coercion (Levene's=p=0.57; t(363)=1.05,p>0.05), coercion (Levene's=p=0.63; t(364)=.44,p>0.05), attempted rape (Levene's=p=0.66; t(364)=-.33,p>0.05), rape (Levene's=p=0.27; t(364)=.55,p>0.05), sexual contact by intoxication (Levene's=p=0.27; t(359)=.65,p>0.05), attempted rape by intoxication (Levene's=p=0.86; t(363)=-.47,p>0.05), and completed rape by intoxication (Levene's=p=0.89; t(364)=.87,p>0.05). Therefore, no evidence was found that suggested that victims were more likely to prefer direct or indirect forms of consent communication compared to non-victims.

Table 52 – Prevalence of Sexual Assault Victimisation by the Intoxication Strategy within the Last 12 Months by Demographic

	Type of Sexual Assault Victimisation					
	Sexual Contact by intoxication		*Attempted Rape by Intoxication*		*Completed Rape by Intoxication*	
	Victim	*Non-victim*	Victim	*Non-victim*	Victim	*Non-victim*
Variable						
Gender*:						
Male	7 (12.5)	49 (87.5)	3 (5.4)	53 (94.6)	3 (5.4)	53 (94.6)
Female	51 (17)	249 (83)	28 (9.2)	276 (90.8)	31 (10.2)	273 (89.8)
Employment*:						
Employed	13 (10.5)	111 (89.5)	8 (6.3)	118 (93.7)	8 (6.3)	118 (93.7)
Undergrad Student	32 (26.4)	89 (73.6)	17 (13.9)	105 (86.1)	17 (13.9)	105 (86.1)
Postgraduate Student	6 (7.9)	70 (92.1)	4 (5.3)	72 (94.7)	5 (6.6)	71 (93.4)
Student (Other)	4 (13.8)	25 (86.2)	0 (0)	30 (100)	1 (3.3)	29 (96.7)
Marital Status:*						
Single/NM	36 (20.7)	138 (79.3)	20 (11.4)	155 (88.6)	24 (13.7)	151 (86.3)
Partnered/NM	22 (14.9)	126 (85.1)	11 (7.4)	138 (92.6)	10 (6.7)	139 (93.3)
Married/Domestic	1 (2.8)	35 (97.2)	0 (0)	37 (100)	0 (0)	37 (100)
Age: M (SD)	21.58 (3.17)	23.49 (3.65)	20.94 (1.95)	23.39 (3.70)	21.79 (3.03)	23.33 (3.68)

*All results are reported by participant number and percentage of the demographic category.

Again, no significant difference was found between victims and non-victims of all victimisation categories in relation to the extent they accept common sexual consent norms; including overall victimisation (Levene's=p=0.42; t(364)=-1.16,p>0.05), sexual contact (Levene's=p=0.48; t(364)=-1.88,p>0.05), attempted coercion (Levene's=p=0.87; t(363)=-1.03,p>0.05), coercion (Levene's=p=0.93; t(364)=-.01,p>0.05), attempted rape (Levene's=p=0.60; t(364)=-.40,p>0.05), rape (Levene's=p=0.51; t(364)=.77,p>0.05), sexual contact by intoxication (Levene's=p=0.54; t(359)=-.56,p>0.05), attempted rape by intoxication (Levene's=p=0.55; t(363)=-.12,p>0.05), and completed rape by intoxication (Levene's=p=0.88; t(363)=1.33,p>0.05). Therefore, no evidence was found to suggest that victims were more likely to accept common sexual consent norms than non-victims.

Finally, there was no significant difference found between victims and non-victims of all victimisation categories in regard to their scores relating to participant awareness and discussions about consent including overall victimisation (Levene's=p=0.05; t(197.14)=.25,p>0.05), sexual contact (Levene's=p=0.01; t(153.03)=.56,p>0.05), attempted coercion (Levene's=p=0..89; t(363)=-.24,p>0.05), coercion (Levene's=p=0.42; t(364)=1.22,p>0.05), attempted rape (Levene's=p=0.57; t(364)=-.26,p>0.05), rape (Levene's=p=0.14; t(364)=.22,p>0.05), sexual contact by intoxication (Levene's=p=0.32; t(359)=-.96,p>0.05), attempted rape by intoxication (Levene's=p=0.79; t(363)=.05,p>0.05), and completed rape by intoxication (Levene's=p=0.03; t(37.43)=.37,p>0.05). Therefore, no evidence was found to suggest that victims were more or less likely to be aware and discuss consent issues with others compared to non-victims.

Table 53 – Prevalence of Sexual Assault and Rape Victimisation by SCS-R Scores

	SCS-R Sub-categories				
Type of Sexual Assault:	Perceived Behavioural Control[1]	Positive Vs Negative Attitudes [2]	Direct Vs Indirect Approach to Consent [3]	Sexual Consent Norms [4]	Awareness and Discussion [5]
Overall Victimisation					
Victim	2.72 (1.18)	5.58 (0.88)	4.71 (1.14)	4.11 (1.08)	4.95 (1.57)
Non-Victim	2.55 (1.09)	5.54 (0.85)	4.78 (1.17)	3.97 (1.12)	4.99 (1.35)
Sexual Contact					
Victim	2.76 (1.19)	5.53 (0.85)	4.79 (1.06)	4.19 (1.08)	4.90 (1.62)
Non-Victim	2.76 (1.09)	5.56 (0.86)	4.72 (1.19)	3.95 (1.12)	5.01 (1.34)
Attempted Coercion					
Victim	2.59 (1.11)	5.43 (0.92)	4.55 (1.27)	4.20 (1.16)	5.03 (1.40)
Non-Victim	2.61 (1.12)	5.57 (0.85)	4.76 (1.15)	4.00 (1.11)	4.97 (1.43)
Coercion					
Victim	2.77 (1.10)	5.53 (0.87)	4.65 (1.18)	4.02 (1.13)	4.67 (1.55)
Non-Victim	2.59 (1.12)	5.56 (0.86)	4.75 (1.16)	4.02 (1.11)	5.01 (1.41)
Attempted Rape					
Victim	3.10 (1.27)	5.48 (0.96)	4.80 (1.09)	4.08 (1.07)	5.04 (1.43)
Non-Victim	2.55 (1.09)	5.56 (0.84)	4.73 (1.17)	4.01 (1.12)	4.97 (1.42)
Rape					
Victim	2.89 (1.21)	5.62 (0.88)	4.65 (1.03)	3.90 (1.03)	4.98 (1.62)
Non-Victim	2.57 (1.10)	5.54 (0.85)	4.75 (1.18)	4.03 (1.12)	4.99 (1.40)
Sexual Contact – Intox					
Victim	2.78 (1.16)	5.60 (0.89)	4.65 (1.04)	4.09 (1.16)	5.14 (1.57)
Non-Victim	2.56 (1.11)	5.54 (0.85)	4.76 (1.18)	4.00 (1.10)	4.94 (1.40)
Attempted Rape – Intox					
Victim	3.12 (1.25)	5.36 (0.94)	4.84 (1.08)	4.04 (1.05)	4.97 (1.49)
Non-Victim	2.56 (1.10)	5.57 (0.84)	4.73 (1.17)	4.02 (1.12)	4.98 (1.42)
Completed Rape - Intox					
Victim	3.00 (1.28)	5.70 (0.87)	4.58 (1.12)	3.78 (1.08)	4.87 (1.75)
Non-Victim	2.56 (1.10)	5.54 (0.85)	4.76 (1.16)	4.04 (1.11)	4.99 (1.39)

[1] Higher score is a lack of perceived behavioural control, [2] Higher score is a positive attitude, [3] Higher score equals a more indirect approach to gain consent, [4] Higher score equals a higher acceptance of sexual consent norms, [5] Higher score equals a higher awareness and discussion of consent.

Table 54 –Prevalence of Sexual Assault and Rape Perpetration by SCS-R Scores

	SCS-R Sub-categories				
Type of Sexual Assault:	Perceived Behavioural Control[1]	Positive Vs Negative Attitudes [2]	Direct Vs Indirect Approach to Consent [3]	Sexual Consent Norms [4]	Awareness and Discussion [5]
Overall Perpetration					
Perpetrator	2.99 (1.20)	5.17 (0.92)	4.79 (1.28)	4.53 (1.20)	5.17 (1.70)
Non-Perpetrator	2.58 (1.11)	5.58 (0.85)	4.74 (1.15)	3.99 (1.10)	4.97 (1.41)
Sexual Contact					
Perpetrator	3.12 (1.09)	4.95 (0.86)	5.04 (1.15)	4.70 (1.03)	5.15 (1.64)
Non-Perpetrator	2.58 (1.12)	5.58 (0.85)	4.72 (1.16)	3.99 (1.11)	4.98 (1.41)
Attempted Coercion					
Perpetrator	3.28 (1.18)	4.80 (0.10)	5.94 (1.02)	4.67 (0.79)	6.25 (0.75)
Non-Perpetrator	2.60 (1.12)	5.56 (0.86)	4.73 (1.16)	4.01 (1.11)	4.97 (1.43)
Coercion					
Perpetrator	4.01 (1.01)	5.13 (0.25)	5.33 (0.44)	5.19 (0.66)	4.33 (2.02)
Non-Perpetrator	2.59 (1.11)	5.56 (0.86)	4.74 (1.16)	4.01 (1.11)	4.99 (1.42)
Attempted Rape					
Perpetrator	1.18	5.90	3.83	5.00	5.75
Non-Perpetrator	2.61 (1.12)	5.55 (0.86)	4.74 (1.16)	4.02 (1.11)	4.98 (1.43)
Rape					
Perpetrator	2.36	6.40	2.17	2.71	6.50
Non-Perpetrator	2.61 (1.12)	5.55 (0.86)	4.75 (1.15)	4.02 (1.11)	4.98 (1.42)
Employment*:					
Employed	2.66 (1.15)	5.53 (0.86)	4.89 (1.18)	4.01 (1.13)	4.83 (1.48)
Undergrad Student	2.75 (1.09)	5.55 (0.88)	4.71 (1.59)	4.08 (1.03)	4.91 (1.38)
Postgraduate Student	2.24 (1.02)	5.67 (0.75)	4.76 (1.12)	3.93 (1.23)	5.28 (1.31)
Student (Other)	2.63 (1.21)	5.40 (1.04)	4.23 (1.16)	4.14 (0.98)	5.08 (1.34)

[1] Higher score is a lack of perceived behavioural control, [2] Higher score is a positive attitude, [3] Higher score equals a more indirect approach to gain consent, [4] Higher score equals a higher acceptance of sexual consent norms, [5] Higher score equals a higher awareness and discussion of consent.

SCS-R - Perpetration

As the SCS-R subcategory data failed to meet the assumption of normality and there was a low number of perpetrator respondents for each category, non-parametric Mann-Whitney U tests were used to determine the differences between perpetrators and non-perpetrators on their attitudes and behaviours towards consent. Table 54 shows the mean data for each sub-category by perpetration type. As only one participant reported perpetrating rape, this category was left out of the analysis.

Testing the difference between reported perpetrators and non-perpetrators based on their attitude of perceived behavioural control in a consent situation it was found that there was no significant difference between reported perpetrators and non-perpetrators for overall perpetration, sexual contact, attempted coercion, and attempted rape. However, reported perpetrators of coercive behaviours were significantly more likely to report that they have a lack of behavioural control in consent situations ($U=171, p<0.05$) than reported non-perpetrators, with a small effect (Cohen's $d= 0.21$), thus providing some evidence that perpetrators of coercive sexual behaviours may feel that they are not able to control the way they ask for consent.

There was no evidence of a significant difference found between perpetrators and non-perpetrators of overall perpetration, attempted coercion, coercion, and attempted rape regarding whether they had a positive or negative attitude towards establishing sexual consent. However, non-perpetrators of unwanted sexual contact were found to be significantly more likely to have more positive attitudes to establishing consent, and reported perpetrators were found to be more likely to have a negative attitude towards consent ($U=1517.50, p<0.01$), with a small effect (Cohen's $d= 0.29$).

No evidence of a significant difference was found on whether participants preferred direct or indirect methods of consent communication between perpetrators and non-perpetrators of all tested reported perpetrator categories. There was also no evidence found of a difference between perpetrators and non-perpetrators of all perpetration categories based on how aware they are about sexual consent and how much they discuss it with others.

In regard to an individual's acceptance of commonly accepted sexual consent norms, perpetrators were significantly more likely to have a higher acceptance of these norms for overall perpetration ($U=2383.00, p<0.05$), with a small effect (Cohen's $d= 0.21$), unwanted sexual contact ($U=1697.50, p<0.05$), with a small effect (Cohen's $d= 0.24$), and coercive

behaviours (U=181.00,p<0.05), with a small effect (Cohen's d= 0.21). Therefore, some evidence was found that reported perpetrators of these categories are more likely to accept commonly accepted, stereotypical norms for indicating or communicating consent. No evidence of a significant difference was found for attempted coercion or attempted rape.

5.8.2 SCS-R and Rape Myth Correlations

To identify the relationship that participant rape myth acceptance and their attitudes and behaviours towards gaining consent, several Spearman Rho correlational tests were conducted. The Spearman Rho correlational test was chosen in this instance as the data violated the assumptions of normality (see previous normality tests for SCS-R subscales) and linearity. Table 55 shows the results of each test.

In regard to the relationship that an individual perceived behavioural control has with their level of rape myth acceptance, a moderate negative correlation was found between perceived behavioural control and IRMA total ($r_s(342)=.35,p=0.00$), subscale 1 ($r_s(342)=.32,p=0.00$), subscale 3 ($r_s(342)=.30,p=0.00$) and subscale 4 ($r_s(341)=.32,p=0.00$). A weak negative correlation was also found between perceived behavioural control and IRMA subscale 2 ($r_s(341)=.23,p=0.00$). These relationships were found to be significant. As higher scores on the perceived behavioural control variable indicates a participant's belief that they have a lack of behavioural control and a lower score on each of the IRMA subscales indicates a lower acceptance of these myths, these results provide moderate evidence that those who accept rape myths to a greater extent are more likely to believe that they have a lack of behavioural control in sexual consent situations.

Table 55 - Results of Spearman Rho Correlational tests between SCS-R subscales and Rape Myth subscale Correlation

	SCS-R Sub-categories				
Rape Myth Categories:	Perceived Behavioural Control	Positive Vs Negative Attitudes	Direct Vs Indirect Approach to Consent	Sexual Consent Norms	Awareness and Discussion
IRMA Total Score	-.35**	.43**	-.20**	-.38**	.32**
Subscale 1 – She asked for it	-.32**	.39**	-.21**	-.37**	.25**
Subscale 2 – He didn't mean to	-.23**	.29**	-.10	-.27**	.20**
Subscale 3 – It wasn't really rape	-.30**	.41**	-.19**	-.36**	.27**
Subscale 4 – She lied	-.32**	.40**	-.23**	-.35**	.32**

*Significant <0.05
**Significant <0.01

Evidence of a positive, moderate relationship was found between the positive/negative attitude towards consent SCS-R subscale and IRMA total ($r_s(342)=.43,p=0.00$), subscale 1 ($r_s(342)=.39,p=0.00$), subscale 3 ($r_s(341)=.41,p=0.00$) and subscale 4 ($r_s(341)=.40,p=0.00$). A weak, positive correlation was also found between the positive/negative SCS-R variable and IRMA subscale 2 ($r_s(341)=.29,p=0.00$). These relationships were found to be significant. As a higher score on the positive/negative variable indicated a more positive attitude towards consent, these results suggest that those who accept the recorded rape myths to a lesser degree are more likely to have a positive attitude to gaining consent.

A correlational test revealed that there was evidence of a weak, negative correlation found between the direct/indirect behavioural approach SCS-R subcategory and IRMA total ($r_s(342)=.20,p=0.00$), subscale 1 ($r_s(342)=.21,p=0.00$), subscale 3 ($r_s(341)=.19,p=0.00$) and subscale 4 ($r_s(341)=.23,p=0.00$) scores. These relationships were found to be significant. As a higher score on the direct/indirect variable indicates a preference for indirect communication methods of consent, these results provide some evidence that those who have a higher acceptance of the rape myths were more likely to prefer indirect methods of communication.

Evidence of a moderate, negative relationship was found between the extent that an individual accepted common sexual consent norms and IRMA total ($r_s(342)=.38,p=0.00$), subscale 1 ($r_s(342)=.37,p=0.00$), subscale 3 ($r_s(341)=.36,p=0.00$) and subscale 4 ($r_s(341)=.35,p=0.00$) scores. A weak, negative relationship was also found between the sexual consent norm acceptance subscale and the IRMA subscale 2 ($r_s(341)=.27,p=0.00$). These relationships were found to be significant. As higher scores on the acceptance of sexual consent

norms indicated a higher acceptance of the commonly accepted consent norms, these results suggest that those who have a higher acceptance of rape myths were also more likely to have a higher acceptance of stereotypical consent norms.

A moderate, positive relationship was found between the extent that a participant is aware and discusses consent with others and the IRMA total ($r_s(342)=.32,p=0.00$), and subscale 4 ($r_s(341)=.32,p=0.00$) scores. Moreover, a weak, positive relationship was found between the awareness and discussion variable and the IRMA subscale 1 ($r_s(342)=.25,p=0.00$), subscale 2 ($r_s(341)=.20,p=0.00$) and subscale 3 ($r_s(341)=.27,p=0.00$) scores. These relationships were found to be significant. As a higher score on the awareness variable indicates a higher level of awareness and discussion of consent with peers, these results provide evidence that those who have a lesser acceptance of rape myths are significantly more likely to have a greater awareness of what consent is and discuss it openly more with peers.

5.8.3 Vignette Scores

Understanding – Scenarios including expected assault variables vs scenarios excluding expected variables

To begin with, two additional variables were created depending on the number of times participants correctly identified a scenario as non-consensual or correctly identified it as a crime, i.e., assault or rape. The two categories were collected for participant responses from scenarios that included obvious, traditional rape and/or assault characteristics and those that excluded these characteristics. Tables (56-59) show the number of participants by victimisation and perpetration type that were classed as having very low, low, medium, high, and very high understanding of whether a scenario was consensual or if they thought the scenario was assault or rape. Overall, reviewing the descriptive results in the tables it can be seen that a larger number had a high or very high understanding of whether a scenario was consensual or should be classed as assault or rape when traditional, obvious assault characteristics were included during the scenario, whereas when these characteristics were excluded there seemed to be a greater variance amongst the level of participant understanding. To determine whether there is evidence that the inclusion or exclusion of these characteristics differed among victims and non-victims, or perpetrators and non-perpetrators further analysis was conducted. As very few participants reported either a ‘Low’ or ‘Very Low’ understanding of consent for reported victimisation levels these categories were removed from analysis so more robust testing can be accomplished. However, when necessary, and with perpetration due to small sample size and

high dispersion rates, a Fisher's Exact Test was needed if the data still did not meet the chi-square assumptions.

Understanding consent

Table 56 shows participant consent understanding by victimisation type, whereas Table 58 shows consent understanding by perpetration type. Regarding victimisation, there was no evidence found of a significant difference between any victimisation type regarding their consent understanding when traditional, obvious characteristics were included within the scenarios. Moreover, there was no evidence that victims were significantly more likely to have a higher or lower level of understanding of when a scenario was consensual when the scenarios lacked obvious characteristics compared to non-victims. Overall, the vast majority of participants seemed to have a high understanding of what constituted as consent in each scenario.

When comparing perpetrators and non-perpetrators understanding of consent when scenarios lacked obvious characteristics by each perpetration type, chi-square analysis provided evidence that perpetrators of at least one type of perpetration were significantly more likely to have a medium understanding (Std Res= 3.2) of when a scenario was consensual compared to non-perpetrators $X^2(2)=12.91$, $P<0.01$. However, when each type of perpetration category was tested evidence of this significant difference was only found with perpetrators of unwanted sexual touching, who were again significantly more likely to report a medium understanding (Std Res= 4.0) of when a scenario was consensual when they lacked obvious characteristics compared to non-perpetrators $X^2(2)=21.17$, $P<0.01$. No more evidence of a significant difference was found between the perpetrators and non-perpetrators of any other perpetration type when the scenarios lacked obvious characteristics. Moreover, there was no evidence of a significant difference found between participant employment type and their level of understanding in scenarios that lacked obvious and traditional assault characteristics.

Conducting Fisher Exact Test's between perpetrators and non-perpetrators on consent understanding when scenarios included traditional and obvious assault/rape characteristics, as seen in Table 57, again provided evidence that perpetrators of at least one type of assault or rape perpetration were significantly more likely to report a medium understanding (Std Res= 3.4; p=0.02) of consent compared to non-perpetrators. Evidence was also found that perpetrators of coercive behaviours were significantly more likely to report a medium level

(Std Res= 4.7; p=0.43) of consent understanding when scenarios included traditional, obvious characteristics of assault or rape. No other differences were found between perpetrators and non-perpetrators for any other perpetration category in relation to scenarios that included obvious characteristics. There was also no difference of consent understanding with scenarios that included traditional, obvious characteristics between any participant employment type. Care must be taken with these results as there was a low number of perpetrators, which means that these findings may be open to a type one error.

Understanding scenario by UK Law

Table 58 outlines participant understanding of whether a scenario would be classed as a crime, specifically of assault or rape by victimisation type. Table 59 outlines the same information by perpetration type. Each table again shows different participant understanding levels when they were presented with scenarios that included traditional, obvious characteristics that are normally associated with assault or rape, as well as scenarios that lacked these obvious characteristics. Overall, these tables show that a large proportion of participants seemed to have a high or very high understanding of when a scenario would be classed as a crime. However, a number of chi-square tests were conducted to see if there was evidence that reported victims or perpetrators had a different level of understanding than non-victims or non-perpetrators. No evidence was found of a significant difference between victims and non-victims for any victimisation type on how much they understood that a scenario would be classed as a crime when presented scenarios that included traditional, obvious characteristics of an assault or rape.

The next set of chi-square and Fisher Exact Test analyses concerned differences between perpetrators and non-perpetrators on their level of understanding of when a situation would be classed as assault or rape. Due to the small sample size and dispersion rate of perpetrators, only the 'very low' category was removed from analysis. In regard to scenarios that included characteristics that are traditionally linked to assault and rape cases, those who reported at least one type of perpetration were significantly more likely to report a low understanding (Std res=2.8; Fisher's Exact Test p=0.05) of whether a scenario is a crime compared to non-perpetrators. However, when testing the individual perpetration categories, evidence of a significant difference was only found for perpetrators of coercion (Std Res= 7.7; Fisher's Exact test p=0.007) who were significantly more likely to have a low level of understanding compared to non-perpetrators. No other significance was found on the understanding of criminality for scenarios containing traditional characteristics between the

rest of the perpetration categories and reported participant employment. In regard to scenarios that lacked traditional, obvious characteristics usually associated with assault and rape, those who reported at least one type of perpetration were significantly more likely to have a low understanding (Std Res=2.7) compared to non-perpetrators $X^2(3)=11.86$, $P<0.01$. Moreover, those who reported perpetrating unwanted sexual contact were significantly less likely to have a very high understanding (Std Res= -2.1) compared to non-perpetrators $X^2(3)=10.74$, $P<0.05$. Again, care must be taken with these results due to the low perpetrator response rate.

Table 56– Participant understanding of consent by victimisation, obvious vs lack of obvious variables.

	Participant Understanding of Consent – Inclusion and Exclusion of Obvious Variables									
	Understanding of Consent – Lack of Obvious Variables					Understanding of Consent – Inclusion of Obvious Variables				
Type of Sexual Assault:	Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High	Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
Overall Victimisation										
Victim	0 (0)	2 (1.7)	7 (6)	29 (25)	78 (67.2)	0 (0)	1 (0.9)	3 (2.6)	16 (13.8)	96 (82.8)
Non-Victim	0 (0)	1 (0.4)	18 (7.2)	47 (18.8)	184 (73.6)	1 (0.4)	0 (0)	2 (0.8)	31 (12.4)	216 (86.4)
Sexual Contact										
Victim	0 (0)	1 (1)	7 (7)	22 (22)	70 (70)	0 (0)	1 (1)	3 (3)	15 (15)	81 (81)
Non-Victim	0 (0)	2 (0.8)	18 (6.8)	54 (20.3)	192 (72.2)	1 (0.4)	0 (0)	2 (0.8)	32 (12)	231 (86.8)
Attempted Coercion										
Victim	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (8.6)	9 (25.7)	23 (65.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (8.6)	7 (20)	25 (71.4)
Non-Victim	0 (0)	3 (0.9)	22 (6.7)	67 (20.3)	238 (72.1)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	2 (0.6)	40 (12.1)	286 (86.7)
Coercion										
Victim	0 (0)	1 (3.4)	2 (6.9)	9 (31)	17 (58.6)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.4)	3 (10.3)	25 (86.2)
Non-Victim	0 (0)	2 (0.6)	23 (6.8)	67 (19.9)	245 (72.7)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	4 (1.2)	44 (13.1)	287 (85.2)
Attempted Rape										
Victim	0 (0)	1 (2.6)	3 (7.7)	10 (25.6)	25 (64.1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (5.1)	1 (2.6)	36 (92.3)
Non-Victim	0 (0)	2 (0.6)	22 (6.7)	66 (20.2)	237 (72.5)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	3 (0.9)	46 (14.1)	276 (84.4)
Rape										
Victim	0 (0)	1 (2.3)	4 (9.1)	13 (29.5)	26 (59.1)	0 (0)	1 (2.3)	1 (2.3)	3 (6.8)	39 (88.6)
Non-Victim	0 (0)	2 (0.6)	21 (6.5)	63 (19.6)	236 (73.3)	1 (0.3)	0 (0)	4 (1.2)	44 (13.7)	273 (84.8)
Sexual Contact – Intox										
Victim	0 (0)	0 (0)	5 (8.5)	11 (18.6)	43 (72.9)	0 (0)	1 (1.7)	2 (3.4)	8 (13.6)	48 (81.4)
Non-Victim	0 (0)	3 (1)	20 (6.6)	64 (21.2)	215 (71.2)	1 (0.3)	0 (0)	3 (1)	39 (12.9)	259 (85.8)
Attempted Rape – Intox										
Victim	0 (0)	1 (3.2)	3 (9.7)	7 (22.6)	20 (64.5)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (6.5)	1 (3.2)	28 (90.3)
Non-Victim	0 (0)	2 (0.6)	22 (6.6)	69 (20.7)	241 (72.2)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	3 (0.9)	46 (13.8)	283 (84.7)
Completed Rape - Intox										
Victim	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (5.9)	10 (29.4)	22 (64.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (2.9)	3 (8.8)	30 (88.2)
Non-Victim	0 (0)	3 (0.9)	23 (6.9)	66 (19.9)	239 (72.2)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	4 (1.2)	44 (13.3)	281 (84.9)

- Table shows number and percentage of participants in brackets (%)

Table 57 – Participant understanding of consent by perpetration, obvious vs lack of obvious variables

	Participant Understanding of Consent – Inclusion and Exclusion of Obvious Variables									
	Understanding of Consent – Lack of Obvious Variables					Understanding of Consent – Inclusion of Obvious Variables				
Type of Sexual Assault:	Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High	Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
Overall Perpetration										
Perpetration	0 (0)	0 (0)	5 (26.3)	5 (26.3)	9 (47.4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (10.5)	3 (15.8)	14 (73.7)
Non-Perpetration	0 (0)	3 (0.9)	20 (5.8)	71 (20.5)	252 (72.8)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	3 (0.9)	44 (12.7)	297 (85.8)
Sexual Contact										
Perpetration	0 (0)	0 (0)	5 (33.3)	5 (33.3)	5 (33.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (6.7)	3 (20)	11 (73.3)
Non-Perpetration	0 (0)	3 (0.9)	19 (5.4)	71 (20.3)	256 (73.4)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	4 (1.1)	43 (12.3)	300 (86)
Attempted Coercion										
Perpetration	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (33.3)	0 (0)	2 (66.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (100)
Non-Perpetration	0 (0)	3 (0.8)	24 (6.6)	76 (21)	259 (71.5)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	5 (1.4)	47 (13)	308 (85.1)
Coercion										
Perpetration	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (33.3)	0 (0)	2 (66.7)
Non-Perpetration	0 (0)	3 (0.8)	25 (6.9)	76 (21)	258 (71.3)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	4 (1.1)	47 (13)	309 (85.4)
Attempted Rape										
Perpetration	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (100)
Non-Perpetration	0 (0)	3 (0.8)	25 (6.9)	76 (20.9)	260 (71.4)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	5 (1.4)	47 (12.9)	310 (85.2)
Rape										
Perpetration	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (100)
Non-Perpetration	0 (0)	3 (0.8)	25 (6.9)	76 (20.9)	260 (71.4)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	5 (1.4)	47 (12.9)	310 (85.2)
Employment:										
Employed	0 (0)	2 (1.6)	11 (8.7)	30 (23.8)	83 (65.9)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (1.6)	16 (12.7)	108 (85.7)
Undergraduate Student	0 (0)	0 (0)	7 (5.7)	23 (18.9)	92 (75.4)	1 (0.8)	1 (0.8)	2 (1.6)	17 (13.9)	101 (82.8)
Postgraduate Student	0 (0)	1 (1.3)	5 (6.5)	13 (16.9)	58 (75.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (1.3)	7 (9.1)	69 (89.6)
Student (Other)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	6 (20)	24 (80)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	5 (16.7)	25 (83.3)

- Table shows number and percentage of participants in brackets (%)

Table 58 – Participant understanding of scenario criminality by victimisation, obvious vs lack of obvious variables.

	Participant Understanding of Crime by Law – Inclusion and Exclusion of Obvious Variables									
	Understanding of Crime – Lack of Obvious Variables					Understanding of Crime – Inclusion of Obvious Variables				
Type of Sexual Assault:	Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High	Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
Overall Victimisation										
Victim	0 (0)	5 (4.3)	24 (20.7)	32 (27.6)	55 (47.4)	0 (0)	1 (0.9)	2 (1.7)	23 (19.8)	90 (77.6)
Non-Victim	0 (0)	2 (0.8)	43 (17.2)	66 (26.4)	139 (55.6)	1 (0.4)	1 (0.4)	2 (0.8)	44 (17.6)	202 (80.8)
Sexual Contact										
Victim	0 (0)	4 (4)	18 (18)	28 (28)	50 (50)	0 (0)	1 (1)	2 (2)	19 (19)	78 (78)
Non-Victim	0 (0)	3 (1.1)	49 (18.4)	70 (26.3)	144 (54.1)	1 (0.4)	1 (0.4)	2 (0.8)	48 (18)	214 (80.5)
Attempted Coercion										
Victim	0 (0)	4 (11.4)	8 (22.9)	10 (28.6)	13 (37.1)	0 (0)	1 (2.9)	1 (2.9)	10 (28.6)	23 (65.7)
Non-Victim	0 (0)	3 (0.9)	59 (17.9)	88 (26.7)	180 (54.5)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	3 (0.9)	57 (17.3)	268 (81.2)
Coercion										
Victim	0 (0)	2 (6.9)	8 (27.6)	9 (31)	10 (34.5)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.4)	5 (17.2)	23 (79.3)
Non-Victim	0 (0)	5 (1.5)	59 (17.5)	89 (26.4)	184 (54.6)	1 (0.3)	2 (0.6)	3 (0.9)	62 (18.4)	269 (79.8)
Attempted Rape										
Victim	0 (0)	2 (5.1)	9 (23.1)	9 (23.1)	19 (48.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (2.6)	6 (15.4)	32 (82.1)
Non-Victim	0 (0)	5 (1.5)	58 (17.7)	89 (27.2)	175 (53.5)	1 (0.3)	2 (0.6)	3 (0.9)	61 (18.7)	260 (79.5)
Rape										
Victim	0 (0)	1 (2.3)	11 (25)	15 (34.1)	17 (38.6)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (4.5)	6 (13.6)	36 (81.8)
Non-Victim	0 (0)	6 (1.9)	56 (17.4)	83 (25.8)	177 (55)	1 (0.3)	2 (0.6)	2 (0.6)	61 (18.9)	256 (79.5)
Sexual Contact – Intox										
Victim	0 (0)	1 (1.7)	10 (16.9)	18 (30.5)	30 (50.8)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (3.4)	12 (20.3)	45 (76.3)
Non-Victim	0 (0)	6 (2)	57 (18.9)	78 (25.8)	161 (53.3)	1 (0.3)	2 (0.7)	2 (0.7)	53 (17.5)	244 (80.8)
Attempted Rape – Intox										
Victim	0 (0)	2 (6.5)	7 (22.6)	7 (22.6)	15 (48.4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.2)	6 (19.4)	24 (77.4)
Non-Victim	0 (0)	5 (1.5)	60 (18)	91 (27.2)	178 (53.3)	1 (0.3)	2 (0.6)	3 (0.9)	61 (18.3)	267 (79.9)
Completed Rape - Intox										
Victim	0 (0)	0 (0)	6 (17.6)	13 (38.2)	15 (44.1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (2.9)	5 (14.7)	28 (82.4)
Non-Victim	0 (0)	7 (2.1)	61 (18.4)	85 (25.7)	178 (53.8)	1 (0.3)	2 (0.6)	3 (0.9)	62 (18.7)	263 (79.5)

- Table shows number and percentage of participants in brackets (%)

Table 59 – Participant understanding of scenario criminality by perpetration, obvious vs lack of obvious variables

	Participant Understanding of Crime by Law – Inclusion and Exclusion of Obvious Variables									
	Understanding of Crime – Lack of Obvious Variables					Understanding of Crime – Inclusion of Obvious Variables				
Type of Sexual Assault:	Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High	Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
Overall Perpetration										
Perpetration	0 (0)	2 (10.5)	5 (26.3)	7 (36.8)	5 (26.3)	0 (0)	1 (5.3)	1 (5.3)	3 (15.8)	14 (73.7)
Non-Perpetration	0 (0)	5 (1.4)	62 (17.9)	91 (26.3)	188 (54.3)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	3 (0.9)	64 (18.5)	277 (80.1)
Sexual Contact										
Perpetration	0 (0)	1 (6.7)	5 (33.3)	7 (46.7)	2 (13.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (6.7)	3 (20)	11 (73.3)
Non-Perpetration	0 (0)	6 (1.7)	61 (17.5)	91 (26.1)	191 (54.7)	1 (0.3)	2 (0.6)	3 (0.9)	63 (18.1)	280 (80.2)
Attempted Coercion										
Perpetration	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (100)
Non-Perpetration	0 (0)	7 (1.7)	66 (18.2)	97 (26.8)	192 (53)	1 (0.3)	2 (0.6)	4 (1.1)	67 (18.5)	288 (79.6)
Coercion										
Perpetration	0 (0)	1 (33.3)	0 (0)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	0 (0)	1 (33.3)	0 (0)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)
Non-Perpetration	0 (0)	6 (1.7)	67 (18.5)	97 (26.8)	192 (53)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	4 (1.1)	66 (18.2)	290 (80.1)
Attempted Rape										
Perpetration	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (100)
Non-Perpetration	0 (0)	7 (1.9)	67 (18.4)	98 (26.9)	192 (52.7)	1 (0.3)	2 (0.5)	4 (1.1)	67 (18.4)	290 (79.7)
Rape										
Perpetration	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (100)
Non-Perpetration	0 (0)	7 (1.9)	67 (18.4)	98 (26.9)	192 (52.7)	1 (0.3)	2 (0.5)	4 (1.1)	67 (18.4)	290 (79.7)
Employment:										
Employed	0 (0)	3 (2.4)	24 (19)	38 (30.2)	61 (48.4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.8)	27 (21.4)	98 (77.8)
Undergraduate Student	0 (0)	2 (1.6)	18 (14.8)	32 (26.2)	70 (57.4)	1 (0.8)	1 (0.8)	3 (2.5)	21 (17.2)	96 (78.7)
Postgraduate Student	0 (0)	1 (1.3)	17 (22.1)	16 (20.8)	43 (55.8)	0 (0)	1 (1.3)	0 (0)	8 (10.4)	68 (88.3)
Student (Other)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	4 (13.3)	9 (30)	16 (53.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	9 (30)	21 (70)

- Table shows number and percentage of participants in brackets (%)

Understanding – Overall Understanding

To identify whether an individual's understanding of what constitutes as consent and if a scenario is consensual or not dependant on UK Law, the participant responses to each vignette were summarised and recoded. Participants were scored 1 if they correctly identified that a scenario was not consensual or that it was assault/rape, whereas they were scored 0 if they believed it was consensual or was not a crime. These scores were then added together, and participants were coded as either having a low understanding, medium understanding, or high understanding dependant on their summarised scores. Due to very few participants showing a 'Low' level of understanding for all consent groups, it was decided that this category be removed from analysis to determine if there were significant differences between those with a medium or high understanding and their victimisation/perpetration experiences.

Understanding of consent

Table 60 shows the number of participants in each level of understanding by each victimisation category. Overall, the table shows that a vast majority of participants had a high level of understanding when it came to identifying whether a scenario was not consensual. Participant understanding of whether scenarios were consensual or not were tested using chi-square analysis to determine whether there was a difference between consent understanding and reported victimisation and perpetration experiences. Regarding victimisation experiences, there was no significant difference between victims and non-victims of all victimisation categories on their understanding of whether a scenario was consensual or not.

Table 61 on the other hand shows participant understanding scores by perpetration type. After a set of Fisher Exact tests, as the sample size did not meet minimum requirements for chi-square analysis, those who had reported at least one type of perpetration (Std Res= 2.2; p=0.05) and perpetrations of unwanted sexual contact (Std Res= 2.9; p=0.02) were significantly more likely to report having a medium understanding of consent than non-perpetrators. No further significance was found between perpetrators and non-perpetrators of any perpetration category on their understanding of when a scenario was consensual. Regarding employment differences on consent understanding, chi square analysis identified that undergraduate students (Std Res= 1.6) were significantly more likely to have a low understanding of consent, compared to the other categories $X^2(6)=12.76$, $P<0.05$. However, caution should be taken with these results because due to low response rates from perpetrators, and the low number of

individuals with reported low understanding of consent, the results may be susceptible to a type one error.

Understanding by Law

Table 60 also shows participant understanding of whether a scenario was a sexual crime in UK Law by victimisation category. Overall, most participants had a high understanding of when a scenario is a sexual crime. Chi-square analysis also shows that there were no significant differences between victims and non-victims of any victimisation type in relation to their sexual crime understanding.

Table 61 shows participant understanding of whether a scenario was a sexual crime in UK Law by perpetration category. Fisher's Exact Tests analysis found that there were no significant differences between overall perpetrator understanding of whether the scenarios were crimes and non-perpetrators. There was no other evidence of a significant difference found between perpetrators and non-perpetrators of any other perpetration category and their understanding of whether a scenario was a crime. Moreover, there was no significant difference between participant employment and their scenario crime understanding.

Table 60 – Overall participant understanding of consent and sexual crime by victimisation

	Participant Understanding of Consent and Sexual Crimes					
	Participant Understanding of Consent			Participant Understanding of Sexual Crimes		
Type of Sexual Assault:	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High
Overall Victimisation						
Victim	1 (0.9)	6 (5.2)	109 (94)	1 (0.9)	15 (12.9)	100 (86.2)
Non-Victim	1 (0.4)	11 (4.4)	238 (95.2)	2 (0.8)	22 (8.8)	226 (90.4)
Sexual Contact						
Victim	1 (1)	5 (5)	94 (94)	1 (1)	11 (11)	88 (88)
Non-Victim	1 (0.4)	12 (4.5)	253 (95.1)	2 (0.8)	26 (9.8)	238 (89.5)
Attempted Coercion						
Victim	0 (0)	3 (8.6)	32 (91.4)	1 (2.9)	6 (17.1)	28 (90)
Non-Victim	2 (0.6)	14 (4.2)	314 (95.2)	2 (0.6)	31 (9.4)	297 (90)
Coercion						
Victim	0 (0)	2 (6.9)	27 (93.1)	0 (0)	5 (17.2)	24 (82.8)
Non-Victim	2 (0.6)	15 (4.5)	320 (95)	3 (0.9)	32 (9.5)	302 (89.6)
Attempted Rape						
Victim	0 (0)	4 (10.3)	35 (89.7)	0 (0)	6 (15.4)	33 (84.6)
Non-Victim	2 (0.6)	13 (4)	312 (95.4)	3 (0.9)	31 (9.5)	293 (89.6)
Rape						
Victim	1 (2.3)	2 (4.5)	41 (93.2)	0 (0)	6 (13.6)	38 (86.4)
Non-Victim	1 (0.3)	15 (4.7)	306 (95)	3 (0.9)	31 (9.6)	288 (89.4)
Sexual Contact – Intox						
Victim	1 (1.7)	3 (5.1)	55 (93.2)	0 (0)	7 (11.9)	52 (88.1)
Non-Victim	1 (0.3)	14 (4.6)	287 (95)	3 (1)	30 (9.9)	269 (89.1)
Attempted Rape – Intox						
Victim	0 (0)	4 (12.9)	27 (87.1)	0 (0)	6 (19.4)	25 (80.6)
Non-Victim	2 (0.6)	13 (3.9)	319 (95.5)	3 (0.9)	31 (9.3)	300 (89.8)
Completed Rape - Intox						
Victim	0 (0)	1 (2.9)	33 (97.1)	0 (0)	3 (8.8)	31 (91.2)
Non-Victim	2 (0.6)	16 (4.8)	313 (94.6)	3 (0.9)	34 (10.3)	294 (88.8)

- Table shows number and percentage of participants who had a low, medium, or high understanding.

Table 61 – Overall participant understanding of consent and sexual crime by perpetration

	Participant Understanding of Consent and Sexual Crimes					
	Participant Understanding of Consent			Participant Understanding of Sexual Crimes		
Type of Sexual Assault:	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High
Overall Perpetration						
Perpetration	0 (0)	3 (15.8)	16 (84.2)	1 (5.3)	3 (15.8)	15 (78.9)
Non-Perpetration	2 (0.6)	14 (4)	330 (95.4)	2 (0.6)	34 (9.8)	310 (89.6)
Sexual Contact						
Perpetration	0 (0)	3 (20)	12 (80)	0 (0)	3 (20)	12 (80)
Non-Perpetration	2 (0.6)	13 (3.7)	334 (95.7)	3 (0.9)	33 (9.5)	313 (89.7)
Attempted Coercion						
Perpetration	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (100)
Non-Perpetration	2 (0.6)	17 (4.7)	343 (94.8)	3 (0.8)	37 (10.2)	322 (89)
Coercion						
Perpetration	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (100)	1 (33.3)	0 (0)	2 (66.7)
Non-Perpetration	2 (0.6)	17 (4.7)	343 (94.8)	2 (0.6)	37 (10.2)	323 (89.2)
Attempted Rape						
Perpetration	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (100)
Non-Perpetration	2 (0.5)	17 (4.7)	345 (94.8)	3 (0.8)	37 (10.2)	324 (89)
Rape						
Perpetration	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (100)
Non-Perpetration	2 (0.5)	17 (4.7)	345 (94.8)	3 (0.8)	37 (10.2)	324 (89)
Employment:						
Employed	0 (0)	11 (8.7)	115 (91.3)	0 (0)	12 (9.5)	114 (90.5)
Undergraduate Student	2 (1.6)	2 (1.6)	118 (96.7)	2 (1.6)	12 (9.8)	108 (88.5)
Postgraduate Student	0 (0)	3 (3.9)	74 (96.1)	1 (1.3)	7 (9.1)	69 (89.6)
Student (Other)	0 (0)	0 (0)	30 (100)	0 (0)	4 (13.3)	26 (86.7)

- Table shows number and percentage of participants who had a low, medium, or high understanding.

5.8.4 Binary Logistic Regression

Perpetration figures are again not tested due to the low response rate. In regard to victimisation, the following models were updated from previous chapters with significant findings from the tested consent variables.

Attempted Rape

The SCS-R subscale perceived lack of behavioural control has been added along with bar/club behaviour, peer pressure and employment to the model attempting to predict attempted rape as there were evidence that victims of attempted rape were more likely to have a lack of perceived behavioural control in consent situations (See Table 62). Overall, the model was significant $X^2(6)=26.99$, $P<0.01$, meaning that it could correctly identify between the reported victims and non-victims of attempted rape. The model can correctly explain between 8% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 16% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 88.1% of cases. Table 62 shows the significant variables associated with the model. The only significant contributor to the model was bar/club social behaviour (OR=1.78), meaning that those who engaged in a higher amount of bar/club social behaviour were significantly more likely to report victimisation, with a small effect (Cohen d=0.3). However, as the only added variable (Perceived behavioural control) odds ratio failed to meet the minimum level when converted into an effect size (Cohen d=0.1), this variable would be removed from the model and the previous incarnation would be accurate.

Table 62 – Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Attempted Rape Including Significant Risk factors and Consent Attitudes

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Bar/Club Socialise	.58	8.29 (1)	.00*	1.78 [1.20 to 2.64]
Peer Pressure Score	.23	1.40 (1)	.24	1.25 [0.86 to 1.83]
Employment - Employed		3.41 (3)	.33	
Employment – Undergrad Stu	.38	.81 (1)	.37	1.46 [0.64 to 3.34]
Employment – Postgrad Stu	-.42	.46 (1)	.49	.66 [0.19 to 2.20]
Employment – Stu Other	-1.10	1.03 (1)	.31	.33 [0.04 to 2.78]
SCS-R – Perceived behavioural control	.31	3.21 (1)	.07	1.36 [0.97 to 1.90]
Constant	-5.48	38.99 (1)	.00*	.00

*significant result

Attempted Rape by Intoxication

The SCS-R perceived behavioural control variable was also added to the logistic model predicting attempted rape by intoxication victimisation (See table 63). Overall, the model was significant $X^2(4)=28.13$, $P<0.01$, meaning that it could correctly differentiate between victims

and non-victims of attempted rape by intoxication. The model can correctly explain between 8% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 18% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 91.3% of cases. Table 63 shows the significant variables that contributed to the model. Those who engaged in higher levels of socialising in bars/clubs were significantly more likely to report victimisation (OR=2.03), with a small effect (Cohen's d=0.39). Moreover, those who were more likely to report a lack of behavioural control over sexual consent situations were also significantly more likely to report victimisation (OR=1.45), with a small effect (Cohen's d=0.2).

This regression analysis therefore provides evidence that socialising more in bars and clubs, as well as feeling a lack of behavioural control in consent situations may increase the risk of an individual experiencing attempted rape when they are intoxicated, either through their own means or as a result of a perpetrators tactics. However, the level of variance explanation is still small.

Table 63 – Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Attempted Rape by Intoxication Including Significant Risk Factors and Consent Attitudes and Behaviours

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Marital Status - Single		2.21 (2)	.33	
Marital Status – Partnered	-.67	2.21 (1)	.14	.51 [0.21 to 1.24]
Marital Status – Married	-18.62	.00 (1)	.99	.00 [.00]
Bar/Club Socialise	.71	10.90 (0)	.00*	2.03 [1.33 to 3.10]
SCS-R - Perceived behavioural control	.36	5.05 (1)	.02*	1.45 [1.05 to 1.95]
Constant	-5.39	31.42 (1)	.00*	.00

*significant result

Completed Rape by Intoxication

The SCS-R subcategory variable perceived behavioural control was also included into the regression model attempting to predict completed rape by intoxication victimisation. Overall, the model was significant $X^2(9)=32.96$, $P<0.01$, meaning it could correctly distinguish between victims and non-victims of completed rape by intoxication. The model can correctly explain between 10% (Coxell & Snell R Square) and 22% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variance in cases, and correctly identified 91.6% of cases. Table 64 shows the significant contributors to the model. Participants who reported their marital status as partnered (OR=.32) were significantly less likely to report victimisation than single participants, with a medium effect (Cohen's d=-0.63). Moreover, participants who had never sent or received a sext message (OR=.03) were again significantly less likely to report victimisation, with a very large effect (Cohen's d=-1.93). However, participants who reported a lack of behavioural control during

sexual consent situations (OR=1.42) were significantly more likely to report victimisation, with a small effect (Cohen's d=0.2).

Regression analysis therefore provides evidence that being partnered or not engaging in sexting may be protective factors for avoiding completed rape by intoxication. Moreover, there is some evidence that those who feel like they do not have behavioural control in sexual consent situations may be more at risk.

Table 64 –Binary Logistic Regression Model Predicting Completed Rape by Intoxication Including Significant Risk Factors and Consent Attitudes and Behaviours

	β	Wald (df)	P	Odds Ratio (95% CI)
Marital Status - Single		5.49 (2)	.06	
Marital Status – Partnered	-1.15	5.49 (1)	.01*	.32 [0.12 to 0.83]
Marital Status – Married	-19.31	.00 (1)	.99	.00 [0.00]
Employment - Employed		1.37 (3)	.71	
Employment – Undergrad Stu	.37	.53 (1)	.46	1.45 [0.54 to 3.91]
Employment – Postgrad Stu	-.11	.03 (1)	.87	.89 [0.24 to 3.38]
Employment – Stu Other	-.41	.23 (1)	.63	.66 [0.12 to 3.57]
Sexting - Sent		7.72 (3)	.05	
Sexting - Received	-1.50	1.35 (1)	.24	.22 [0.02 to 2.81]
Sexting - Both	-.94	.64 (1)	.42	.39 [0.04 to 3.91]
Sexting - Neither	-3.57	5.37 (1)	.02*	.03 [0.00 to 0.57]
SCS-R – Perceived behavioural control	.35	4.45 (1)	.03*	1.42 [1.02 to 1.96]
Constant	-1.56	1.32 (1)	.25	.21

*significant result

5.9 Chapter Discussion

This chapter looked to determine the extent that attitudes towards sexual consent and an individual's understanding of consent related to sexual assault and rape victimisation among a post-18, young sample of people in the UK. Therefore, the main aim of the chapter was to determine if there was a difference between reported victims and non-victims of sexual assault or rape in regard to their understanding of consensual sexual situations and their attitudes towards gaining consent. This was done by comparing scores from a consent attitudes scale (SCS-R) and participant responses to depicted sexual consent and rape vignettes with reported sexual assault and rape experiences in the last 12 months.

Consent attitudes

Overall, on average, participants indicated higher perceived behavioural control in sexual situations that require consent, as well as indicating higher positive attitudes to gaining consent and being more aware of and discussing consent with others. These indications of attitudes would suggest that, on average, the young sample of individuals from the UK have a positive

outlook on communicating and gaining consent in sexual situations, as well as a high level of control in consent situations and are able to discuss it with others (Humphreys & Brousseau, 2010; Humphreys & Herold, 2007). Moreover, on average, participants were more likely to indicate their preference for indirect methods of communication of consent, which directly supports past research suggesting young people prefer indirect communication methods as asking for explicit consent can 'kill the mood' in a sexual situation (Jozkowski et al., 2014; Muehlenhard et al., 2016). Additionally, an average high score on the sexual norm's subscale indicated that the young people mainly had a higher acceptance of traditional sexual norms, such as that it is not necessary to ask for consent while in a relationship. These results suggest that the young sample on average may be open to traditional sexual norms that may place the onus for consent on one individual, such as women need to give firm refusals of consent (Canan et al., 2016), or excuse the behaviours of others if these norms are not met, for example a perpetrator excusing their behaviour due to a lack of a verbal refusal (Jozkowski et al, 2017). However, no evidence was found that victims had a certain attitude towards consent compared to non-victims for the majority of tested consent attitudes. The findings of the chapter suggest that reported victims of attempted rape and attempted rape/completed rape by intoxication were more likely to indicate less behavioural control in sexual situations.

The lack of differentiation between victims and non-victims for the majority of the tested attitude categories means that this chapter found no evidence that particular attitudes towards consent may make someone particularly vulnerable to sexual assault or rape victimisation, excepting the example already discussed. As a result, the alternative hypothesis suggesting that there would be a difference between victims and non-victims in regard to their attitudes towards consent is rejected. To speculate, these findings may suggest that an individual's attitudes towards consent may not be a contributing factor to how they are targeted by a perpetrator. As a result, victimisation among young people may be less of a miscommunication between two people and more a result of a motivated perpetrator assaulting another and using consent miscommunication or traditional sexual norms as an excuse for their behaviour (Jozkowski & Humphreys, 2014; O'Bryne et al., 2007). Further, qualitative investigation is needed to determine the thoughts and feelings of young people and whether attitudes towards consent can put someone at risk of victimisation.

Consent attitudes and rape myths

The findings from this chapter provide evidence that rape myth acceptance and attitudes towards consent are closely related. Those who were more likely to accept rape myths were more likely to indicate that they had less behavioural control in sexual consent situations, more negative attitudes towards gaining consent, preferred indirect methods of communication consent, had a high acceptance of common sexual consent norms and were less likely to indicate that they had less awareness and were less likely to discuss consent in the current sample. Even though attitudes towards consent were not found to be prevalent among victims over non-victims and therefore less likely to be a risk factor, if those who have these attitudes towards consent are more likely to have a higher acceptance of rape myths and therefore more likely to shift blame from perpetrators to victims (Burt, 1980), then these attitudes may also have a negative impact in a number of functions in society. For example, these attitudes towards consent may also affect the amount of bystander intervention a person is willing to perform to protect others (Jozkowski et al., 2019). Detailed awareness strategies that aim to change consent attitudes could also help to improve these processes and help to dispel negative attitudes towards victims of sexual assault and rape.

Understanding consent differences with reported victimisation and perpetration

Overall, participant understanding for when a sexual scenario is non-consensual or classed as assault or rape was very high. Excluding traditional factors in the assault and rape vignettes did seem to cause some participants confusion over their answers and created a higher variation with understanding, both with identifying the scenario as a crime or if it was non-consensual or not. Victims of attempted and completed coercion were found to have a significantly lower understanding that the vignettes were describing crimes when traditional characteristics were removed from the scenario. As reported victims of attempted or completed coercion will have experienced threats, emotional abuse, or convincing language to engage in unwanted sex, this result may be explained as victims of coercion will normalise and play down situations that lack traditional aggressive characteristics while including elements that were present during their own victimisation (Dardis et al., 2017). However, the results of the chapter found no evidence that victims of the rest of the assault and rape categories were less likely to correctly identify a situation as non-consensual or as a crime when traditional characteristics were not included in the scenario. Therefore, the majority of the findings do not support previous research that suggests an association between the absence of these characteristics, consent

understanding and victimisation (Dardis et al., 2017; Muehlenhard et al, 2016; Rosenthal, 1997). Moreover, the results also suggest no evidence that overall understanding of when a scenario is consensual or not, as well as classed as a crime by UK Law, differed between victims and non-victims of assault or rape, again failing to support suggestions from past research (Hust et al, 2017; Muehlenhard et al, 2016).

One potential explanation for these findings is that young people in the UK have an overall high understanding of what constitutes when a situation is consensual or not, either through education, experience or through observing others. However, this knowledge may not reduce the risk of assault as a motivated offender will use tactics to nullify the protection that this knowledge may provide.

In regard to reported perpetration, the findings suggest that those who had reported at least one type of perpetration were more likely to report a lower level of understanding for when a vignette described a non-consensual or criminal scenario and when traditional characteristics were both included and excluded compared to non-perpetrators. In regard to overall understanding of when a vignette was consensual, reported perpetrators of unwanted sexual contact reported less understanding than non-perpetrators. It is no surprise that those who reported perpetrating sexual assault would be less likely to classify the vignette scenarios as consensual or lawful and therefore seem to have a lower understanding. As it has been previously suggested in research that perpetrators may use the acceptance of traditional sexual norms or miscommunication as an excuse for their behaviour (Jozkowski & Humphreys, 2014; O'Bryne et al., 2007), they are also likely to class similar situations as consensual or legal and therefore seem to have a low understanding of when scenarios are consensual. However, care needs to be taken with these results due to the low number of perpetrators that reported their behaviours. Moreover, significant results for reported perpetrators of attempted or completed coercion should be treated with caution as only three reported perpetrators of this behaviour finished this section of the questionnaire.

The findings of this chapter also showed that undergraduate students in the sample were more likely to report a lower understanding of when the vignette's showed an unlawful situation. There are two potential explanations for this finding. Firstly, past research indicates that young people, potentially undergraduate students to a higher degree, accept and normalise a high level of sexual abuse behaviour in certain environments, such as at house parties, clubs, and pubs (Camp et al., 2018). The normalisation of these behaviours would mean that

undergraduate students would be less likely to class such a situation as criminal. Alternatively, younger undergraduate students may collectively have less of an understanding of what constitutes a non-consensual situation by law as they have less experience with these scenarios or have not actively looked to research what situations are classed as criminal and what have not. Either way, this finding provides some evidence that undergraduate students may benefit from educational programmes that look to teach them when unwanted sexual behaviour can be classed as criminal. Consent programmes, such as the 'I Heart Consent' (NUS, 2014) programme in the UK will help with this, but more focus should be on when a situation becomes a crime.

Including consent factors in the sexual assault and rape regression models

Including perceived behavioural control as a potential risk factor into the previously analysed regression models due to identified differences between victims and non-victims produced some interesting results. Perceived behavioural control failed to contribute significantly to the model explaining the difference between reported victims and non-victims of attempted rape. Instead, it was not until the factor was introduced into models that specifically dealt with victimisation as a result of intoxication, either through self-inflicted consumption of alcohol, drugs or a perpetrator plying them with alcohol or drugs, that the factor became a significant contributor, with those who indicated less perceived control in a sexual situation being more likely to report victimisation. These findings provide evidence that an attitude of a lack of perceived behavioural control may interact with intoxication to increase the risk of an individual to completed or attempted rape. Moreover, as this interaction was found with serious rape crimes, which include non-consensual oral, vaginal, or anal penetration, the findings may suggest that individuals with this attitude may be easier to separate from potential guardians and taken to a place they can be raped while intoxicated. Past research has identified the risk that consuming alcohol can have on increasing sexual assault and rape risk (Abbey et al., 2007; Ingemann-Hansen et al., 2009; Kilpatrick et al., 2007; Lorenz & Ullman, 2016). However, if individuals with lower levels of perceived behavioural control in sexual situations are at higher risk of attempted or completed rape when intoxicated, educational or awareness programmes that look to empower young people by allowing them to realise that they are in control of a situation or providing more support to young people while intoxicated may help these individuals avoid negative experiences. A further investigation into why this pattern was highlighted in the current study is needed to expand on this.

5.10 Chapter Conclusion

The current chapter looked to investigate participant attitudes and understanding towards sexual consent and how this associated with reported victimisation. Overall, the questionnaire found that the majority of participant attitudes towards consent were positive, with a high acceptance of traditional sexual norms and a preference for indirect communication with potential sexual partners. Moreover, the majority of participants seemed to have a high understanding of when vignette scenarios were non-consensual or would be classed as a crime, although understanding seemed to be more varied when traditional characteristics associated with assault were removed from the scenarios.

However, there was no evidence found that the vast majority of attitudes or level of understanding were particularly held by victims over non-victims which could have indicated a potential risk. Perceived behavioural control was associated with attempted rape and rape when perpetrators targeted either already intoxicated victims or looked to intoxicate victims to assault them suggesting the potential risk that this attitude may pose. Moreover, reported victims of coercion and attempted coercion and students were more likely to report a lower understanding of when a situation is criminal by UK Law, which could suggest either a lack of knowledge among young people in regard to the illegality of their experiences or the normalisation of certain behaviours that mean young people are less likely to see them as illegal (Camp et al., 2018). These findings show that it is important to educate young people on what sexual crimes are by UK Law, what counts as a consensual encounter and teach them to have control over communication consent. However, even though consent understanding is important, the findings from this chapter also suggest that consent attitudes and understanding may not increase sexual assault and rape risk to a significant degree. Therefore, awareness strategies should not solely rely on consent education to reduce these crimes as understanding consent may not protect an individual from a motivated offender. Instead, further support or awareness may be required to effectively help young people avoid victimisation.

Chapter 6 – Discussion of Quantitative Results

The main aims of this project were to investigate sexual assault and rape victimisation and perpetration among a young sample of 18-30-year-old adults in the UK. This was done to identify the self-reported prevalence rate among a young sample, as well as identify whether specific demographical groups were more at risk of victimisation or more likely to perpetrate sexual crimes. Also, to determine whether specific behavioural, situational, or attitudinal factors were more likely to increase victimisation risk or motivate perpetrators to commit sexual crimes. Moreover, the project aimed to look at the difference between young people who are currently enrolled at university as undergraduate students and those that are employed to determine if students are more vulnerable to sexual crimes. Through the first step of data collection and the use of a quantitative questionnaire, a number of interesting results were found, which are summarised and further discussed in this chapter.

6.1 Summary of Main Findings

In regard to victimisation prevalence, the findings of this study reflect similar prevalence rates to that found by the NUS (2019), although they were found to be much higher than police and CSEW (2017) figures, with over 60% of participants reporting one type of victimisation experience since the age of 14 and around a third reporting victimisation experiences in the last 12 months. Additionally, among the 18-30-year-old sample, the most common victim reported strategy used by their perpetrators was coercive tactics or taking advantage of the victim by intoxication, either self-induced or perpetrator induced. In regard to perpetration prevalence, the self-reported perpetration figures were a lot lower than expected, although this could be a result of perpetrators being unwilling to report their crimes due to a societal perception shift away from excusing these types of offences as suggested by Walsh et al. (2019).

Undergraduate students did report higher levels of victimisation experience in the last 12 months for some types of victimisations, which reinforces some past research (CSEW, 2017; Fisher & Cullen., 2000; Fisher et al., 2010). However, no difference was found between undergraduate students and other 18-30-year-old participants in regard to their reported level of risky behaviours or attitudes. Therefore, the results of this study reinforce suggestions by Buddie and Testa (2005) that all young people engage in risky behaviours or have risky attitudes that make them vulnerable to sexual violence, but undergraduate students have less responsibility and more time to engage in these risky behaviours. The higher intoxication

perpetrator strategy reported by undergraduate student victims also supports this theory, as undergraduate students will have more time to get intoxicated voluntarily.

Using binary logistical regression to predict the likelihood that a young person would report victimisation based on a number of reported factors and the extent that the models can explain the variance between victims and non-victims produced some interesting findings. When demographical information was inputted into the models, based on previous vulnerable demographical group findings, the valid models were significant but were only able to account for a small amount of variance between victims and non-victims. However, when significant risk factor findings were included in the model, the amount of variance explained increased, almost doubling or tripling. Therefore, even though some demographical groups seem to be more vulnerable to sexual assault and rape victimisation, the findings from this analysis would suggest that it was a combination of vulnerable demographical factors, and the risky behaviours or attitudes individuals may have or engage in that increase their likelihood to become a victim of assault or rape in the studies sample of young people.

Overall, participant attitudes towards consent in sexual situations were positive or as expected. Moreover, the vast majority of participants had a high understanding of when a presented vignette sexual assault or rape situation was either non-consensual or a crime, although this level of understanding seemed to have more variance when non-traditional assault and rape characteristics were removed from the vignettes. In regard to these attitudes and level of understanding being a risk of victimisation, only those who thought they had less behavioural control in a consent situation were more likely to report victimisation of attempted or completed rape while intoxicated. Moreover, only reported victims of attempted or completed coercion seemed to have a lower understanding of when a vignette depicted a crime, thus potentially reflecting the confusion about their own experiences.

6.1.1 Identified Vulnerable Demographic Groups and Risk Factors that Increase Victimisation Vulnerability or Perpetration Motivation

One of the main focuses of this project was to identify the potential factors that may increase the risk of a young adult in the UK becoming a victim of sexual assault or rape or motivate young perpetrators to commit sexual crimes. The RAT (Felson & Cohen, 1980) states that for a crime to occur there must be a vulnerable, attractive victim without adequate guardianship and in a situation where they can come across a motivated offender. Even though initial inferential testing identified a number of factors that were more common among reported

victims of several sexual assault and rape experiences, only a few factors significantly contributed to the regression models. These factors can be related to the RAT to explain why they may increase the likelihood that a young person may report victimisation.

A number of significant findings from the past chapters could be attributed to increasing an individual's vulnerability and attractiveness as a target to a potential perpetrator. Female participants and undergraduate students were more likely to report overall victimisation, which may suggest that they are either more vulnerable to sexual assault or that they are more attractive as a target to potential perpetrators. Married or partnered participants were less likely to report victimisation for a number of assault and rape categories, potentially suggesting that those who were single were more vulnerable to assault/rape victimisation or may be more of an attractive target to motivated perpetrators. Some findings suggested that those who believed they had less control in a sexual consent situation were more likely to report some types of victimisations by the intoxication strategy, thus highlighting how vulnerable someone can be to assault or rape victimisation if they hold this attitude but are also intoxicated. Those who reported a higher agreement to the hard-core pornography depicting forced sex 'turning them on' statement was also more likely to report victimisation to unwanted sexual contact experiences, thus also suggesting that an individual's vulnerability to sexual assault may be increased by engaging with explicit material, potentially due to their normalisation of behaviours that commonly lead to assault or rape. Engaging in a higher level of social behaviour in venues like bars and clubs can potentially be seen to increase an individual's vulnerability to assault or rape due to the contribution this variable had to the regression models, especially for experiences where the perpetrator used a victim's level of intoxication as a strategy to assault or attempt to rape them. Finally, those who have never engaged in sexting behaviour were less likely to report overall victimisation and completed rape experiences. Even though it is not thought that sexting specifically increases the vulnerability of rape, not engaging in sexting may allude to an individual being more careful with their overall behaviour throughout their life, which will mean they are not as vulnerable to sexual crimes as those who engage in riskier behaviours.

In regard to lack of guardianship, a number of findings from this study have also identified how several factors relating to guardianship can potentially affect an individual's chances of victimisation. Those who reported having a partner or were married were less likely to report victimisation for a number of categories, thus suggesting the level of guardianship their partner or spouse may provide against sexual crime victimisation. First and second year

undergraduate students were also more likely to report higher victimisation levels for a number of categories. As many undergraduate students move away from their parents, guardians, and trusted friends in their first year, their higher level of reported victimisation may be a result of the lack of guardianship these past support networks provided, thus leading them to create new support networks that may not be as effective in protecting them from victimisation. Moreover, as the use of dating apps or websites is done on a one-to-one basis, an individual who uses these apps may lack appropriate guardianship if they meet a motivated offender online who coerces them to meet face-to-face, which could explain the contribution using 1-2 apps had on the regression models for predicting reported victims in a number of categories. Finally, as some unwanted sexual behaviour is seen as accepted in some social environments (Camp et al., 2018), the association between bar/club social behaviour and reported victimisation could be a result of potential guardians also accepting this behaviour as the norm, thus failing to adequately step in to protect an individual.

In regard to findings related to reported perpetration experiences and some variables that may account for cognitive distortions that motivate some offenders, a number of findings were found. Firstly, an equal amount of male and female participants reported perpetrating at least one offence. There was also some evidence in the questionnaire analysis over each chapter that reported perpetrators were more likely to watch pornography, have a higher acceptance of rape myths, were more likely to have a small rape supportive peer group and feel some level of peer pressure. Moreover, perpetrators were found to be more likely to use intoxication and coercion as strategies to target younger victims for unwanted sexual contact or coerce them into sex, as well as use force to rape younger victims. In regard to consent and perpetration, reported perpetrators were found to have a belief of less perceived behavioural control in consent scenarios, an overall negative view of gaining consent, a lower understanding of when someone is not consenting to unwanted sexual contact and an overall lower understanding of when a forced sexual scenario may be against the law. Obtaining perpetrator responses for this project has been invaluable to provide some evidence of these differences and relationships, which can be used to build upon in future research. However, the low level of responses from perpetrators means that care must be taken when drawing conclusions with such a small dataset as it may not be generalisable to the wider perpetrator population.

6.2 Developing a Visual Model of Victimisation and Perpetration

Using the findings from the quantitative analysis chapters, as well as the conceptual framework outlined in Chapter 1 (See Figures 1&2) and the RAT as a theoretical framework, visual models were created to help expand our understanding of how young adults can be at increased risk of sexual victimisation or can be motivated to offend.

Victimisation

Breaking down the component parts of the RAT and expanding on its explanation of sexual victimisation occurring among young people in the UK, Figure 3 shows the visual representation of a model of victimisation based on the results from the quantitative survey. The conclusions of this element of the project suggest that the vulnerable, attractive victim segment of the RAT can be divided into two main areas for this population. Firstly, there were several demographical groups that seemed to have a higher report rate of victimisation than others, thus suggesting that they are more vulnerable to sexual victimisation than others, either through their attractiveness or availability as a target. However, when comparing these results to past literature the level of responsibility of an individual seemed to have an effect on their likelihood and opportunity of engaging in risky situations/environments where they had a higher chance of meeting a potential perpetrator. For example, when the visual model is applied to unwanted sexual contact (See Appendix E-ii), being an undergraduate student and/or single seemed to increase vulnerability, possibly due to their opportunity of engaging in risky situations or attending risky environments, due to a lack of responsibility of a full-time job or partner. There were also several risk factors that seemed to increase victim vulnerability/attractiveness and therefore increase the chance of being targeted by a potential offender, specifically behavioural and attitudinal factors. For example, when the visual model is applied to overall victimisation (See Appendix E-i) using 1-2 dating apps was significantly associated with victimisation for a behavioural factor and being turned on by pornography depicting rape was also significantly associated with victimisation as an attitudinal factor.

Leading on from factors that increase vulnerability and linking with the presence of a motivated offender element of the RAT, the young adult would then have to engage with or be in a risky situation or environment where a potential motivated perpetrator was present for victimisation. The main risky environment identified in the quantitative analysis seemed to be the engagement in social environments, such as bars and clubs, although meeting through a dating app could also be a potential risky situation (See Appendix E). Moreover, the significant

contributions of bar/club behaviour and reported victimisation by intoxication seems to highlight the potential increase in vulnerability with the presence of intoxication. However, the researcher understands that there will be numerous situations where a young adult could also potentially by at risk due to the presence of a motivated perpetrator. For example, at a house party, walking alone in an unfamiliar area or potentially at home with someone they know.

Finally, the last stage of the visual model at this stage of analysis shows the importance of protective factors in relation to young person victimisation. If protective factors are present then there is a decreased chance of victimisation, whereas a lack of these factors would link to the lack of guardianship element of the RAT, which would increase the likelihood of young person victimisation. For example, within the visual model for rape victimisation (See Appendix E-v), being married/partnered seemed to significant protective factor against reporting rape victimisation in this projects sample, which highlights the potential protection that responsibilities associated with a partner, or the presence of the partner has against rape victimisation. See Appendix E to see all visual models of victimisation by each sexual assault and rape type investigated in this project.

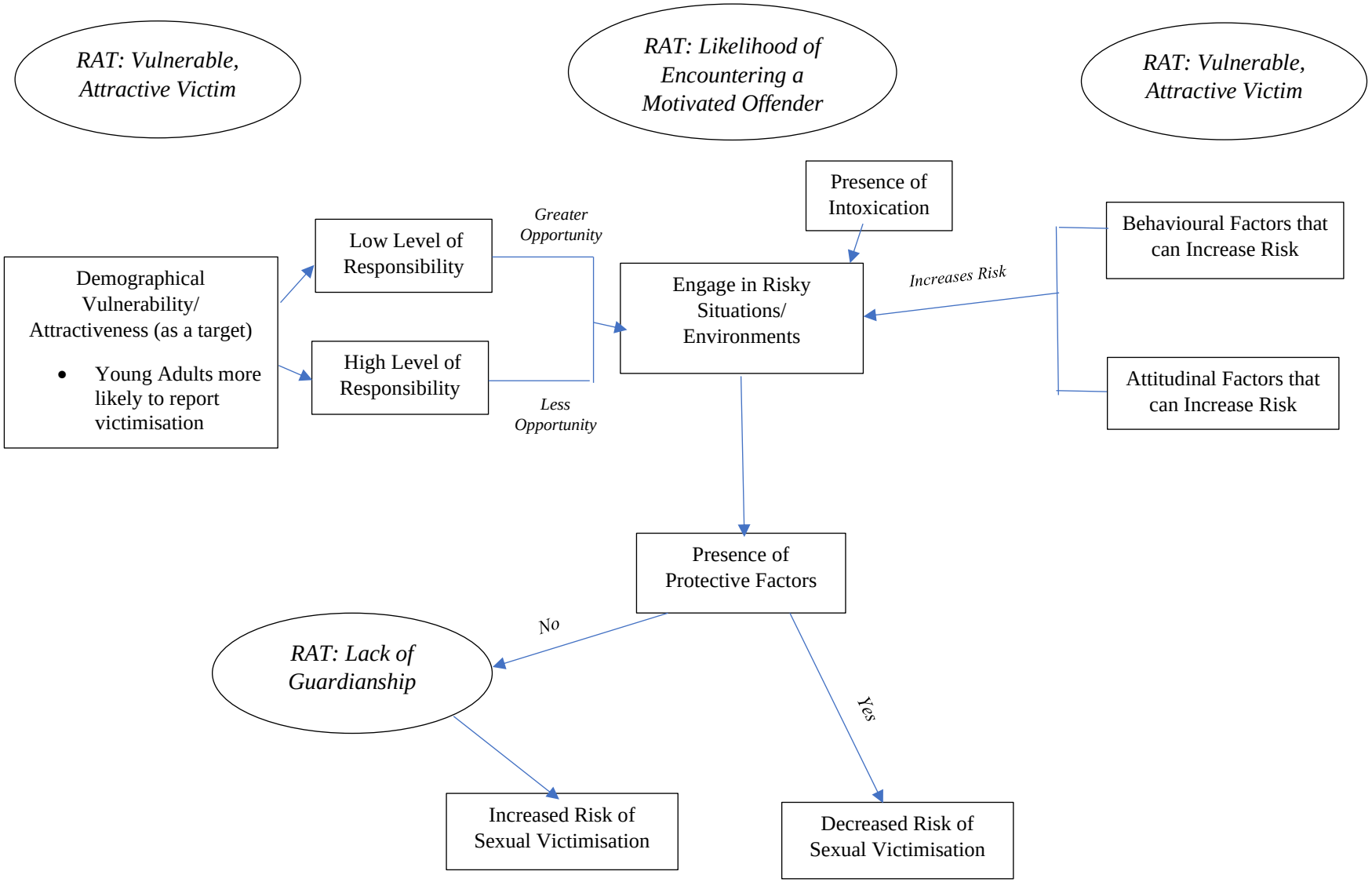

Figure 3: General Visual Model of Victimisation after Quantitative Analysis

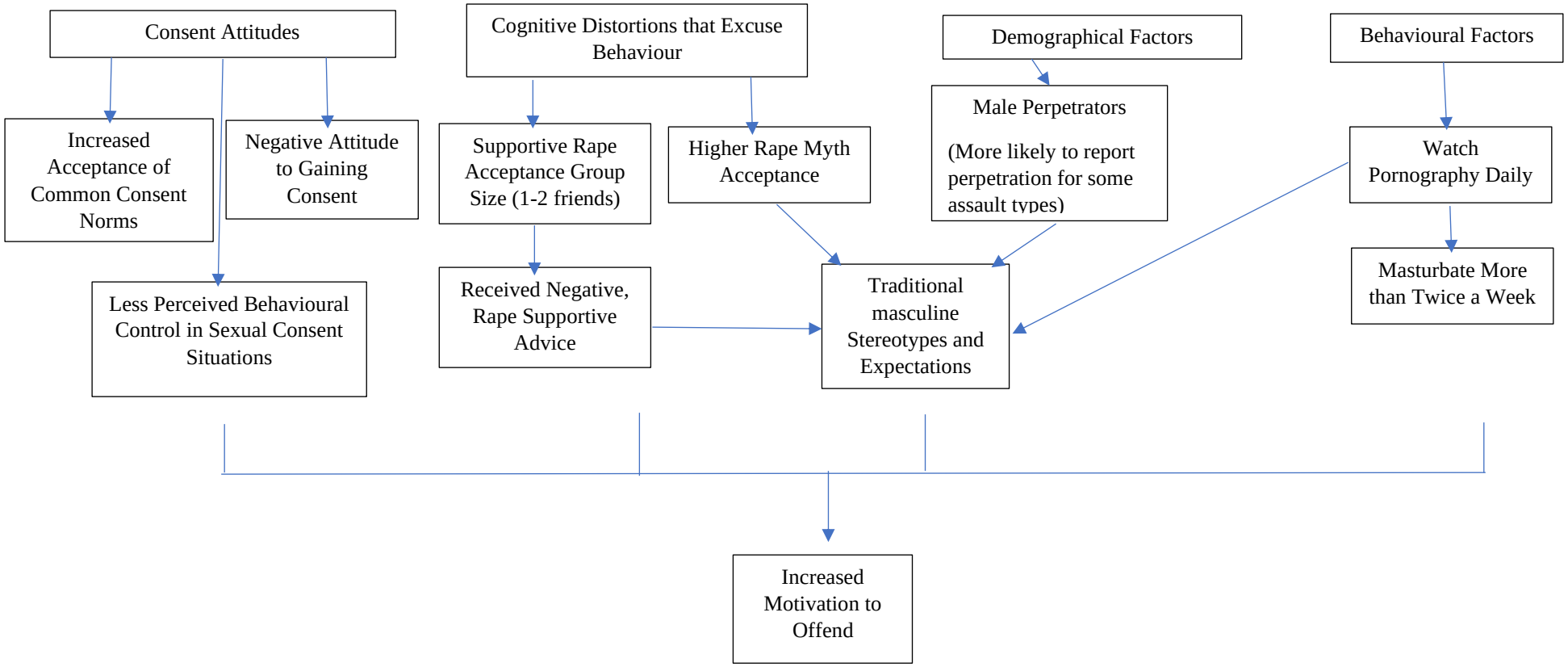

Figure 4: General Visual Model of Perpetration from Quantitative Analysis

Perpetration

Even though reported perpetration prevalence was low and therefore an analysis of factors that may increase perpetrator motivation yielded limited evidence, a visual model was still constructed concerning perpetrating motivation with the combination of past literature and elements from the conceptual framework for perpetration from this project, as well as the findings from previous chapters. Figure 4 shows this model and includes each significant factor as discussed throughout each chapter under four separate headings; consent attitudes, cognitive distortions that excuse behaviour, demographical factors, and behavioural factors. Each factor on its own has the potential to increase perpetrator motivation to offend, either through minimising the need to gain explicit consent in the perpetrator's eyes, excusing their behaviour through cognitive distortions or incorrect, dated beliefs or through the depiction of victims as sexual objects through the viewing of pornography on a regular basis. However, the limited evidence from the analysis in this project has identified significant factors that are associated with traditional masculine stereotypes and expectations from traditional dominant masculine beliefs, which if accepted by male perpetrators could lead to increased motivation, an excuse for their behaviour and a belief of diminished responsibility for any assault they commit.

6.3 Limitations of Quantitative Findings and Potential Directions for Future Investigations

The quantitative questionnaire has identified a number of interesting and important findings in regard to sexual assault and rape crimes among young adults in the UK. However, there are a number of methodological and theoretical limitations to this part of the project. Firstly, even though the sample of young people surveyed was obtained from a varied sample of students and non-student populations across the UK, there were very few respondents who are in an apprenticeship due to the difficulty the researcher had in disseminating the questionnaire among this population. This is a limitation as understanding the experiences of young people who choose to go into an apprenticeship with sexual assault and rape victimisation would better help support strategies aimed to reduce victimisation levels among all young adults in the UK. Another limitation with the sample is the low number of reported perpetrators. As few participants reported perpetrating unwanted sexual behaviour, the results from analysing potential motivating factors with reported perpetration behaviour may be incorrect and showing patterns that were not there. Future quantitative questionnaires testing similar areas should

focus on these populations to increase our understanding of sexual assault and rape in these populations.

To make sure that as many potential risk factors were tested as possible, the questionnaire contained numerous scales and questions. However, as the questionnaire took on average 45-50 minutes to complete, a large number of potential participants failed to complete all sections of the questionnaire, meaning that potential data was lost for some scales and questions. Moreover, there is the possibility that some participants experienced exhaustion bias while completing the questionnaire, which may have led them to choosing random answers to questions without fully engaging with the question or producing accurate answers. This potential bias may therefore reflect the validity of the project's findings. However, as the findings of this project suggest that some risk factors may not have a contributing effect of victim risk, future quantitative investigations can be refined to remove these superfluous measures.

Theoretically, past literature on sexual assault and rape victimisation has identified a large number of potential risk factors that could contribute to sexual assault and rape victimisation or contribute to motivating potential perpetrators. However, due to the limitations of the project and potential size of the quantitative questionnaire, some potential contributing factors were not investigated. As such, the affect that these factors may have on the regression model outcomes or potential associations with other risk factors were not tested. However, as the current project has identified the main contributing factors to the models, such as gender, employment and bar/club behaviour, future investigations can look to test other factors left out in this project with the significant contributing variables to see if the models can be improved upon.

Finally, analysis of the data from the quantitative questionnaire provides a number of interesting findings concerning the association between reported victimisation experiences and engagement in risky behaviours or identified risky attitudes. Moreover, analysis provided a number of regression models that help explain the variance between victims and non-victims of sexual assault and rape and the likelihood that these factors can predict victimisation. However, even though these associations were found, the analysis from the quantitative questionnaire does not fully prove that these factors increase victimisation risk, nor give an in-depth reason why engaging in these behaviours may increase risk. To fully understand why significant factors may increase risk, in-depth qualitative investigation is needed.

6.4 Chapter Conclusion

In conclusion, the three independent studies based on the data collected from the quantitative questionnaire provide a number of interesting findings concerning sexual assault and rape among a young sample in the UK. Specifically, the prevalence among a sample of young people across the country, differences between student and non-student populations and the samples attitudes and understanding of consent. Moreover, a number of identified risk factors have been found to be associated with reported victimisation and the regression models identified the contributing factors that were likely to predict reported victimisation. However, to confirm these findings and try to fully understand why these factors may increase the risk of a young person experiencing sexual assault or rape victimisation, a greater, in-depth investigation of the risks identified are needed. Therefore, the next stage of the mixed methods approach sought to bring a greater in-depth understanding of these factors through the use of qualitative focus groups.

Chapter 7 – Confirmatory Focus Group Findings

7.1 Introduction

In previous chapters a number of elements have been explored in relation to sexual assault and rape among young people in the UK, including crime prevalence, factors that may increase risk of victimisation or motivate young offenders and how attitudes of consent and understanding of consent relate to reported victimisation and perpetration. The findings from these chapters have allowed us to better understand sexual assault and rape among a young sample in the UK, such as factors that may potentially increase risk. However, the quantitative analysis so far can only provide evidence that these factors may be associated with victimisation. This chapter therefore looks to introduce the qualitative explanations of young people to better explain the quantitative findings and expand upon the models of victimisation. As part of the mixed methods approach, qualitative focus groups were conducted among small groups of young people in England to gain their observations and thoughts based on the findings of the quantitative questionnaire. This was done to confirm that identified, significant factors that were found within the questionnaire are present in a young person's life, as well gain the thoughts and observations of young people as to why these factors may increase risk.

7.2 Why Include Qualitative Research?

Due to the flexibility of the Pragmatic philosophical and epistemological approach, the researcher chose a qualitative, subjective approach to phase 2 of the mixed methodology by using qualitative focus groups with the aim of expanding on the quantitative findings and better addressing the main aims of the project. Moreover, the choice of thematic analysis to analyse the focus group data was implemented to allow clear themes to be developed and compared against the quantitative questionnaire findings so that the aims of the study could be explored fully, which is one of the main underpinnings of Pragmatism.

Qualitative research provides a greater in-depth dataset as it is possible to obtain detailed information about participants thoughts opinions and experiences and analyse them to identify valid themes. Focus groups allow a group of people to discuss and clarify their thoughts, observations, and experiences through a detailed discussion with similar individuals (Khan et al., 1991). This allows researchers to gain a clear understanding of participant responses to questions surrounding an important topic while also allowing them to record and analyse the interaction between the focus group and identify how participants choose to

communicate to get their ideas across, such as through the use of jokes or the language they use (Kitzinger, 1995). As such, focus group research has been used to reinforce study findings into a number of areas, including nursing practices (Jordan et al., 2007), survivors of sexual assault and rape (Larcombe, Fileborn, Powell, Hanley & Henry, 2016), and attitudes surrounding AIDS (Kitzinger, 1994).

However, care needs to be taken when using focus group research with sensitive topics (Jordan et al., 2007). Asking participants to relive negative experiences that have happened to them, someone they know, or they have committed may cause an individual to become uncomfortable, stressed or not engage in the discussion (Jordan et al., 2007). Instead, participants should be encouraged to discuss their take on their observations of behaviours or attitudes related to the focus group topic, or commonly accepted societal beliefs surrounding the topic, with the option of providing personal experiences if they wish (Jordan et al., 2007). Another issue with focus groups surrounds the participants selected for the study. Participants must be within the targeted demographic, however, Kitzinger (1994) suggested that to gain a good focus group dynamic the chosen participants must be similar to make sure the discussion goes well. For example, having the same gender, age, sexuality, or education. Differences between participants, especially when trying to gain a group interaction between diverse individuals, can lead either to some participants taking control of the discussion and not allowing others to speak, or for some participants to choose to speak as little as possible. To remove this issue with diverse participants, it is beneficial to have a detailed, well-structured plan and interview guide to help participants engage in the discussion and prevent any arguments or unwanted comments to be made.

Even though there are some pitfalls and issues with using focus groups in research it was decided that it would be the most appropriate method to expand the investigation into sexual assault and rape in this project.

7.3 A Follow On from the Quantitative Questionnaire

As a sequential explanatory mixed methods approach, the findings and structure of the focus groups were derived from the structure and findings of the quantitative survey. As previously stated, this methodology has been chosen for this project to expand on the quantitative findings and better explain the models derived from the quantitative findings by gaining the thoughts and observations on sexual victimisation from young people. Therefore, the structure of the focus group interviews and the questions that participants were asked to discuss were based off

the quantitative findings in two main ways. Firstly, the interviews were divided into three main parts (prevalence, consent, and risk factors) to reflect the overall structure of the questionnaire, which also had the added bonus of making analysis easier as similar topics would be in the same part of the focus group transcripts. Secondly, the majority of the planned questions within the focus group topic guide are derived from the findings of the questionnaire. For example, participants were asked to give their opinions of the victimisation prevalence levels found within questionnaire analysis. As the questions were related, the themes developed from the focus group transcripts could be clearly linked to the overall questionnaire findings, thus reflects a true mixed methods approach. See Appendix D for a breakdown of how the quantitative results were used during the thematic analysis process. However, due to the potential bias a researcher can bring to qualitative analysis when implementing a mixed methodology and following the epistemological and philosophical views of Pragmatism, the researcher needs to ensure their investigations include reflexivity (Feilzer, 2010).

7.4 Reflexivity

During qualitative analysis it is important for a researcher to be reflexive and identify the effect that personal biases and opinions can have on the analysis of qualitative data, as well as the effect that collecting and analysing this data can have on a researcher (Barrett, Kajamaa & Johnston, 2020). This helps to increase the validity of a dataset and reflect on how the analysis may be affected by the researcher.

To acknowledge and help overcome these biases the researcher kept a reflexive record of potential biases, both those pointed out by colleagues through review or those identified by the researcher themselves. These biases could be categorised into three main areas: biases that are perpetuated through traditional or negative stereotypes and beliefs perpetuated through society, personal biases from the researchers past, as well as biases created from the quantitative questionnaire analysis prior to the qualitative focus groups being conducted.

The researchers past employment and personal relationships also had the potential to affect the validity of the focus group analysis by introducing potential personal biases into how the main researcher interpreted the results. Through past relationships, such as friendships, with victims of sexual assault and rape, the researcher understands that biases and inaccuracies that may have been perpetuated through personal discussions could affect their interpretation of some results, especially those concerning perpetration motivation. Moreover, due to the researchers past employment in secondary and higher education the safeguarding training the

researcher received had the potential to cause bias through an over exaggeration of young person vulnerability to sexual crimes and thus overemphasise the riskiness of some investigated factors, such as intoxication or bar/club behaviour. These biases were identified and overcome through the detailed discussion of each theme with the main supervisory team and other post graduate researchers from different backgrounds.

Finally, as the project used a sequential explanatory method where the results of the quantitative questionnaire directly informed the focus group discussion, the high level of reported victimisation from the sample in the questionnaire, as well as it is associated risk factors, had the potential to create a negative perception towards young person sexual interactions. The researcher understands that the high level of reported incidents has the potential to affect the focus group discussion analysis if someone believed that every sexual situation a young person engages in may be dangerous, especially due to the overemphasis of assault in social settings by the focus group participants. However, young, post 18-year-olds engaging in sexual relationships is normal and can be healthy and fulfilling for those that engage consensually. Therefore, gaining feedback from colleagues and the supervisory team was vital to ensure that developed themes were not overly negative or overreacting to participant comments, with an emphasis to identify strategies to support young people engaging in health or fulfilling sexual relationships while avoiding unwanted sexual encounters.

As a recap, to ensure that the researcher identified, addressed, and overcame potential biases that may affect the validity of the qualitative analysis a number of steps were taken to be as reflexive as possible, Firstly, any identified thoughts or biases concerning results, beliefs and personal experiences were recorded to be reviewed. These were identified through researcher review, progression meetings, literature reviews on similar research backgrounds and the biases that have been previously identified, as well as through feedback from post graduate researcher colleagues and their supervisor team. Any identified biases were then discussed fully with post graduate colleagues and the researchers' supervisory team to make sure they were overcome, with any themes and conclusions generated through thematic analysis further discussed to ensure that each bias was overcome.

7.5 Chapter Aims and Objectives

The main aim of this chapter is to gather the observations and thoughts of a group of young people in the UK around sexual assault and rape victimisation among young people, which will be based on the results of the quantitative questionnaire that was conducted in previous chapters. The group discussion will also allow the researcher to study the interactions of young people while discussing this topic.

To meet this aim the following objectives will be explored:

1. Determine whether the observations and thoughts of the participants regarding who is more vulnerable to sexual assault adequately reflects the findings of the risk questionnaire.
2. Identify whether those who take part in the focus groups have similar thoughts and observations regarding factors that may increase the risk of sexual victimisation and whether this reflects the findings of the questionnaire.
3. Determine the thoughts of focus group participants in regard to a lack of understanding of consent and their beliefs and observations in how this may affect a person's sexual vulnerability, or their chances of perpetrating a sexual crime.
4. Expand on the findings of the risk questionnaire by identifying salient themes that are discussed during the focus group, in regard to sexual assault/rape victimisation.

7.6 Chapter Method

Sample

Table 65 shows a breakdown of the participant demographical data, along with their anonymous participant number. Eight participants took part in the study, four in each group. The majority of participants were female (N=6) as a result of running an all-female group. Participant age ranged from 26-29, which is in the higher age bracket of the desired age range. The majority of participants described themselves as white English, with one participant describing themselves as white Irish. The majority of participants were employed in full time work (75%), whereas the other two were students, one in their first year and one in postgraduate study. Half of the participants were single and had never been married, whereas the rest had a partner or were married. The majority of participants described themselves as heterosexual (87.5%), with one bisexual participant (12.5%).

Table 65 – Participant information for Focus Group Discussions

Participant Number*	Group	Age	Gender	Employment	Ethnicity	Sexuality	Marital Status**
P1M	Mixed	26	Female	Employed	White English	Bisexual	Married
P2M	Mixed	29	Male	Employed	White English	Heterosexual	Single/NBM
P3M	Mixed	28	Male	Employed	White English	Heterosexual	Single NBM
P4M	Mixed	29	Female	Employed	White English	Heterosexual	Single/NBM
P5AF	All-Female	26	Female	Employed	White English	Heterosexual	Married
P6AF	All-Female	29	Female	Student (1st year)	White English	Heterosexual	Partnered/NBM
P7AF	All-Female	28	Female	Student (4th year+)	White Irish	Heterosexual	Single/NBM
P8AF	All-Female	29	Female	Employed	White English	Heterosexual	Married

*M= Mixed Group, AF= All-Female Group
** NBM = Never been married

Materials

The analysis for this chapter used the focus group transcripts as produced using the focus group materials as described in Chapter 2.

7.7 Chapter Results

Throughout the analysis, ten main themes were identified. These were; 1) Expectation that reported prevalence levels would be higher, 2) Perceived vulnerability of single and LGBTQ+ young people, 3) Vulnerability due to young people's lack of knowledge, confidence and finances, 4) The danger of dating and dating apps, 5) Young people are at higher risk as they take advantage of their new found freedom, but undergraduate students have more opportunity to take risks, 6) Normalising sexual assault in close quarter environments and the effect of alcohol, 7) Individual differences that can increase or decrease risk, 8) Perceived dangers of sexting among young people, 9) Perceptions of perpetrators, 'aggressive opportunists' or 'coercive tacticians', 10) Young people negotiating consent in modern times. The themes were closely connected with the perceived vulnerability of young people, post 18 and the results from the past questionnaire.

Expectation that reported prevalence levels would be higher

The first theme centres around group opinion on whether reported levels of assault and rape are accurate in past research and the findings of the questionnaire. The findings from the questionnaire suggest that 31.6% of the surveyed young people had reported at least one type of victimisation, with 25.6% saying that they had suffered unwanted sexual contact and 12.7% reporting completed rape. These findings were close to past research conducted by the NUS (2019) and much higher than that reported by the CSEW (2017). However, when participants in the focus group were told about these figures, they were shocked as they thought the figure would be much higher. For example, one of the male participants in the mixed group thought that they expected it to be higher due to them knowing women who have been victimised:

P3M - "I'd expect it to be higher considering that everyone, every woman I know has experienced it [sexual assault] like going out in clubs and stuff like that. I'd expect it to be higher"

And one participant in the all-female group had observed a high level of reported experiences on social media, which lead them to expect a higher reported figure than they were given:

P6AF – "It's lower than I thought, Because I spend a lot of time on Reddit and on Reddit everyone's…. there is a lot more on Reddit."

One participant who even described themselves as sheltered from what they believed were environments and situations where assault and rape occurred, were shocked with how low the number seemed as they had heard how often it happens:

P7AF – "I still always find it quite shocking, as I don't really go out drinking and go out in that environment, so I am quite sheltered from that, so I ermmm, I hear a lot about it, but I don't see it often, but I do know it's happening and its quite shocking, it really is."

These comments therefore highlight the amount of sexual assault and rape victim reports that individuals hear from friends and through social media, thus suggesting that figures from past research and official statistics may still be under reporting true prevalence figures. Additionally, when asked who would be more vulnerable, both groups thought that young women would experience higher levels of victimisation, as found in the questionnaire. However, discussions within the groups also acknowledged male victims of assault and that they can also become targets for perpetrators, with one male participant disclosing their victimisation experience to the group, highlighting a level of understanding within the groups that men can indeed be assaulted, both by male and female perpetrators:

P2M – "I was in a situation when I was on a work placement, I was roughly about 18/19 and a gay man sexually assaulted me."

When asked why survey data and official statistics may be lower than expected, group discussion identified two main assumptions. The first one is based on the overwhelming assumption of all participants that the vast majority of sexual victimisation cases among young people in the UK occur in club/pub environments and concerns that the normalisation of unwanted touching leads to victims not reporting their experiences. Participants agreed that some young people would not qualify unwanted touching in clubs as assault, whereas others suggested that behaviour that is unacceptable in some environments, such as a supermarket, is seen as acceptable in a club:

P1M – "I would say that through my experience the people who have experienced that [sexual assault] would not jump to qualify that as sexual assault, some would not all"

P8AF – "I think the emphasis as well is that the more serious things are being reported, like if it's just a touch or someone grinding up against you, it's kind of like you don't automatically think it's wrong in that immediate situation and when you look back and look at definitions or discuss it with other people then you kind of think, oh yeah, that wasn't okay, but in the moment it was just unwanted and you wouldn't think of it as an offence as such…"

These points provide evidence that support the suggestion by Camp et al., (2018) who stated that unwanted groping and touching is seen as a normal occurrence in environments, such as pubs and clubs, which will lead to victims playing down or accepting unwanted behaviour without report or protest. Moreover, the consensus within the groups would explain why bar/club behaviour was a significant contributor to the regression model explaining the difference between victims and non-victims of unwanted sexual contact. The second explanation that the focus groups gave for the low report rate focused on stigma that male and female victims would feel regarding their experiences. As past research has indicated that men may not report a sexual victimisation experience that did not include violence (Javaid, 2015) due to a fear of negative reactions from support services (Kassing et al., 2005; Scarce, 2008) or fear of failing to live up to traditional male gender stereotypes and being seen as weak (Kassing et al., 2005; Walker et al., 2005), some comments made by the participants during the focus group directly support this theory of why reporting is low:

P5AF – "*I think that's one that will go very underreported, a stigma that people feel about that, and I wish they didn't, but it is just something that people will feel. It's not easy for men to open up about things like that, because they might think it's something against their masculinity or strength and they don't want to admit that."*

Moreover, one participant brought forward a real-life celebrity example of the stigma men may feel if they report their victimisation:

P6AF – "I .....you…. it's see, it's like Terry Cruise reported it, and people were like, well you're a big guy, why didn't you fight them off, because violence shouldn't be the answer, it shouldn't be happening in the first place."

The groups therefore concluded that from their observation the pressure men feel to protect their masculinity may prevent them from reporting their victimisation, which would also explain why inferential analysis of the questionnaire data found males less likely to report victimisation than female participants. The groups also discussed the stigma that women can feel to protect their reputations if they feel they are partly to blame for their victimisation:

P1M – "I feel like there is also a stigma attached sometimes to saying that you have been assaulted, like you don't want to feel like you have to report it or if you've done anything to deserve it as there is a lot of propagation of well what have you done, have you dressed like this, have you dressed like that, what did you do to entice it"

This comment shows that the focus group participants believed that young women would be questioned on their role in the assault, which could lead to a fear of them being blamed for the assault and having a label attached to them. These comments therefore directly relate to research that suggests women are careful with their reputations and how they are portrayed, as there is a social stigma that women should be undersexed (Canan et al., 2016). If women report their victimisation and they are partially blamed, they could receive a negative label, such as 'slut' or 'easy' (Jozkowski & Humphreys, 2014; Jozkowski et al., 2017), which if believed by a victim could explain why they may not report their experiences.

Overall, this theme highlights the belief that participants had that the figures found in the questionnaire and past research is low and that they had a number of explanations to why people may fail to report their victimisation, which directly correlates with past research.

Perceived vulnerability of single and LGBTQ+ young people

The next theme identified through focus group discussion relates to the agreement of all participants that single people and those in the LGBTQ+ community were more at risk to sexual victimisation. Participants thought that young people without a partner or spouse would be more vulnerable as they would take higher risks, such as go out and drink more in clubs, with one male participant from the mixed group stating:

P3M – "I think single people are likely to be out more… and they are likely to get drunk more often, which obviously makes you more vulnerable….. "

These thoughts and observations reinforce past findings from research that indicate single, divorced, or widowed individuals are at greater risk of victimisation (Rennison et al., 2013; Siddique, 2016). Additionally, the comment above and the discussion that accompanied it, reinforces the idea suggested in past investigations that found that single people may be more at risk as they engage in behaviours that place them into situations where they are more likely to meet motivated offenders, such as 'on a night out' (Siddique, 2016), whereas married or partnered participants were less likely to be victimised as they engaged in this type of behaviour

less due to responsibilities in their relationship. Moreover, this belief from the focus group can offer an explanation as to why the quantitative section of this project found that married participants were significantly less likely to report overall victimisation, unwanted sexual contact, sexual contact by intoxication and completed rape by intoxication as they believe that single people engage in riskier behaviour.

However, when discussing single person victimisation, participants believed that having a partner or being married did not protect young women and men from experiencing unwanted attention and unwanted sexual contact while in environments, such as clubs:

PM3 – "Well I mean, from my experience, when I have been with someone, in a relationship with someone and we have gone out, that hasn't changed the level of attention that person gets, and they've been treated the same, if someone was going to touch them in a club, they will of done if I was there or not…."

Moreover, in the all-female group, participants admitted to pretending to being in a relationship or engaged when they were single, which they report did not work, as outlined in the following statements:

P6AF – "I used to wear a fake engagement ring, try and weed them out, it didn't really work."

P5AF – "I have done that before though. Throughout all my life I have always worn a ring on my wedding finger, from being a little kid it's the finger I always had a ring on, and sometimes I did use it as in 'leave me alone' and point at the ring, but it shouldn't really have to get to that point."

P6AF – "Some of them back off so quickly, and say 'I'm sorry, sorry I didn't know', and you are like you shouldn't be doing it anyway and I am not his property."

These comments suggest that a partner or spouse, either present or implied, is not an effective guardian against unwanted sexual contact while in social environments, such as pubs or clubs. This finding directly contradicts past research that suggests that a partner would be an effective guardian against motivated offenders for unwanted contact (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Siddique, 2016). Findings from this project's questionnaire did find that those who were married were less likely to report unwanted sexual contact victimisation in the past 12 months. However, during regression analysis, the inclusion of the socialising in bars and clubs risk factor stopped marital status being a significant contributor to the model. Moreover, nearly 25% of all

partnered participants had experienced unwanted sexual contact in the past 12 months. The findings from the questionnaire therefore support the comments made by the focus group suggesting that having a partner or spouse does not protect an individual from unwanted touching in social environments. However, the questionnaire still shows that having a partner or spouse is a protective factor against attempted or completed rape with intoxication, potentially due to the need of a perpetrator to get a targeted victim on their own, which would be more difficult in the presence of a partner compared to unwanted touching which can happen anywhere.

Focus group participants also thought that members of the LGBTQ+ community would experience a higher level of victimisation than heterosexual people. Specifically, participants thought that LGBTQ+ individuals would be at a higher risk due to need to use dating apps to a higher degree, specifically young, gay men who are looking to engage in casual sex:

P1M – "I have heard a lot of anecdotal evidence that the LGBTQ community is sometimes more at risk, and I don't really know why. There is a lot of stereotypes that young gay men have a lot of casual sex and use apps like Grindr, I don't know what it is about that app, but I think people think it is more causally related to it, but It's just what I've heard and I don't really understand where that stereotype comes from…."

In response

P4M– "It is anonymous isn't it, you don't see the face, you don't see anything, you just see genitals, and then you can go meet them and its literally just for sex and nothing more…"

In response

P1M – "Ah okay, so maybe young, gay men…"

When asked to give reasons why LGBTQ+ individuals may need to resort to these apps, the reasons given were because homophobia still exists in society and they are trying to protect themselves, the anonymity of dating apps and the perception that it is a safe space, how difficult it is to find another LGBTQ+ person due to their minority status in society and the fact that the individual may not have come out as gay to friends and family. Moreover, the all-female group suggested that those who were unsure about their sexuality would put themselves at risk by travelling to unknown locations and experiment without notifying their friends and family as they would not want them to know:

P5AF – "Possibly people who may be questioning their sexuality and not sure. They may put themselves in situations or at risk as they are not sure as to what label they want to put on themselves if they put a label on it, or if their friends don't know if they may be questioning their sexuality, they may be going out on their own to places they have not been before, which could put them at risk."

Therefore, the participants believed that using dating sites for casual sex could potentially put the individual in contact with an increased number of potential perpetrators as they will speak to more people, and those who travel to unfamiliar gay bars etc., would lack adequate guardianship, which the participants thought would put them at risk. The reflective thoughts and observations of the participants directly relate to past research findings that suggest LGBTQ+ individuals are more at risk (NUS, 2019) as they have to take more risks to find potential partners (Johnson et al., 2016), which can lead to riskier situations, such as meeting a potential perpetrator online, or going to unfamiliar locations to explore their sexuality (Braun et al., 2009). However, the findings from the questionnaire did not show reported homosexual or bisexual participants to have a greater reported level of victimisation for the majority of assault and rape recorded experiences. One potential reason why the questionnaire failed to find evidence that homosexual or bisexual participants are more at risk could be that the analysis did not then investigate gay and lesbian participants separately. As the focus group suggests that young men may be more at risk as they use anonymous apps to look for causal hook-ups, they may be more at risk from assault by offenders using apps to target their victims. A future investigation should therefore aim to look at the relationship between sexuality, app use and victimisation.

Vulnerability due to young people's lack of knowledge, confidence, and finances

Discussions around young person vulnerability also highlighted the participants belief that young people lacked knowledge, confidence, and experience with dealing with unwanted sexual attention, which could in their opinion lead to unwanted sexual contact or young people being coerced into engaging in unwanted sex, as highlighted in the reported experiences of one participant:

P5AF – "I mean they might not have the confidence, like I said I didn't about knowing exactly what is wrong, and then what to do about it, who to go to about it and stuff like that…"

Participants thought that those who lacked confidence to stand up for themselves would mainly struggle to indicate non-consent in social settings, such as a club where they would also lack knowledge that what is happening to them is wrong:

P5AF – "I wouldn't of thought too much of things like that [unwanted touching] as I would of seen it happen to other people and I just of accepted that it was just what happened when you were in a club, whereas now I know a lot more about it and I know I shouldn't be treated like that by anybody and I shouldn't see anyone else treated like that, but I have a lot more confidence and a lot more knowledge about everything to go and do something about it.."

Participants in the all-female group who work with younger teenagers at the moment, also expressed their concerns that the young women they work with do not have a basic understanding of what they can consent to and when they can refuse, such as the following comment during a discussion on the need for consent in a long-term relationship:

P5AF - I think that it is wrong, but a lot of people think it, especially young girls that I've worked with, as I try to say to them that just because you are in a relationship they can say no if you don't want it, and they look at you and say, 'can I?'.

Participants also commented on students who had moved to an unfamiliar area for university, such as from a small town to a big city, and the risks that may occur for not being familiar with how to be safe in a new environment:

P2M – "so if, for example, if they have come from a small rural town and gone to a massive city then the environment has completely flipped on its head from where they were and what they were used to…."

Moreover, participants indicated a potential risk that a lack of confidence and knowledge about rules for sexual consent in their first-time job, which a figure of authority could take advantage of to abuse the young person:

P1M – "I think it can also be, you know, like in a first time, real job and you don't know who to look up to….and people who are in positions of power over you, both in terms of their stature in the company and also age, and if you're worried about how things go and if you are not used to the working environment you might think a fear of reprisal for what happens if something does happen to you and you report it. So, there is probably a lot of silence in that regards…… but yeah…positions of power."

Discussions around confidence and consent also highlighted the benefit that a few years of experience of navigating adult sexual relationships and attending risky environments can have on increasing knowledge and confidence, which can lead to young people being better able to protect themselves:

P5AF – "…whereas now when we've got a year or two more behind us then you grow in confidence and you have better friendships and better romantic relationships as well, it then gives you confidence to know what is right and what is wrong and when to go and do something."

The participants therefore mentioned that teaching young people about when sexual attention is wrong and when they can refuse sex, possibly through the use of more experienced and knowledgeable people as mentors, would massively decrease risk for them. These comments surrounding vulnerability due to a lack of confidence and knowledge coincides with findings that younger adults are more at risk of assault and rape than those who have more experience. Past surveys (CSEW, 2017; NUS, 2019), research (Felson et al., 2012; Greathouse et al., 2015), and the findings of the questionnaire indicate that younger participants reported a higher level of victimisation in a number of categories, as well as earlier student years reporting a higher level of victimisation in the past 12 months. Educating young individuals that they always have the option to refuse, or increasing their knowledge about local risks, as well as potentially providing older mentors that younger people can go to for advice may help decrease risk and vulnerability to sexual crimes.

As research has indicated that younger adults are more at risk of sexual offences (Felson et al., 2012; Greathouse et al., 2015), another suggestion made by the focus groups surrounded their belief that, as students and younger adults have limited finance, the lack of money could lead to a higher risk of victimisation. For example, it was suggested that those with lower finances may need to choose cheaper accommodation in what they classed as riskier environments:

P2M – "…and it could also lead to like to where the area they can stay in, if they can't afford the more expensive accommodation areas and if they stay in less expensive accommodation in a rougher area then there may be more risks about."

One participant also thought that a young person's financial status may dictate how they travel home after a night out, with those who cannot afford safe means of transport having to rely on

walking, potentially through dangerous areas, or relying on the charity of a friend or stranger, who may then expect sex in return:

It was also suggested that those who have a lack of money may be more willing to accept alcoholic drinks bought by others on a night out, which could increase risk as those who buy them the drinks may then push for unwanted sex, either using intoxication as a strategy, or expecting sex as a result of their generosity:

P3M – "On nights out as well, you are more likely to accept drinks off someone and be guilted into… you know…"

Research has identified that some young women do sometimes believe that they should have sex with a man if they buy them drinks (Jozkowski et al., 2017). This suggestion highlights the risk that young women may face with being coerced into unwanted sexual situations. Moreover, the overall suggestion that a lack of finances can increase risk could potentially contribute to why younger people are more vulnerable. The questionnaire did not investigate financial status in regard to victimisation, however future research should investigate this to determine if it truly has an impact on victimisation risk, as support can also be developed to support students who find themselves in these situations due to a lack of finances.

The danger of dating and dating apps

As previous research has suggested that those that engage in more frequent casual dating behaviours (Flack et al., 2016) and who use dating apps (Scannell, 2019) are more at risk of sexual assault as they are more likely to come across potential perpetrators and perpetrators can use dating apps to target vulnerable victims (Maas et al., 2019; Scannell, 2019), participants were asked about their beliefs concerning the relationship between dating, dating apps and sexual victimisation . It was also important to obtain participant thoughts and observations as the questionnaire found evidence that those who indicated that they engaged in a higher number of dating behaviours were more likely to report assault or unwanted sex by coercion experiences and those who used apps were more likely to report overall victimisation and unwanted sexual contact, although only app use was a significant contributor the models that aimed to explain the variance between victims and non-victims.

Overall, discussions by the focus groups concluded that those who went on more dates or used dating apps are more likely to be victimised due to them coming into contact with more people, and therefore being naturally more likely to meet a potential motivated offender:

P1M – "I mean in terms of maybe shear exposure to people who could be abusers, potentially."

P3M – "That's what I was going to say, sort of, you are putting yourself in more vulnerable positions I suppose if you are meeting someone you have never met before and it's a date then I suppose you are in a more vulnerable position, just day to day."

One participant did believe that online dating was not necessarily riskier than meeting someone on a night out, but they thought the risk was again increased due to the amount of people you can talk to on an online dating app or website:

P5AF – "I think it would be the same amount of risk if you had just met the person in a pub like for the first time as well. I think that the dating apps do not make you more vulnerable, just that you have the potential to meet more people on a dating app than you would just going out on a Friday night."

Participants also discussed a number of additional reasons why using dating apps may increase risk. Firstly, participants agreed that some people may lie, create fake profiles, and use coercive language on dating apps, which reinforces the suggestion from Scannell (2019) that online dating environments can be used as 'hunting grounds' by perpetrators, which could lead to victimisation if the participant does not know how to defend themselves:

P1M – "Yeah, because there is an element of anonymity behind it, someone could be lying or saying anything, ermm, you just don't know unfortunately and again exposure, the amount of people you go through on a dating app"

It was also thought that young people, especially students, were more likely to go and meet someone they met online at the persons house without meeting them elsewhere first, which was seen as a big risk for the mixed group. One participant was able to share observations of people they knew taking these types of risk:

P3M – "Yeah, I know a couple of people that have gone on first dates from a dating app and have gone to that person's house as the first point of contact, which has obviously increased their vulnerability at that point. And the fact that I know people that have done that, and I don't know that many people, haha means that it must be quite common."

To further reinforce their arguments concerning dating app risk, participants also used examples from mainstream media about those who had used dating apps, such as Tinder, to meet people, but had then become victims of other crimes, such as murder or kidnapping:

P1M – "And you see people on the news, especially in other countries, especially the young British lady backpacker who was in Thailand? Who went on Tinder, went to their home and got killed?"

Overall, the focus group discussions concluded that high amounts of dating behaviour and especially using dating apps could be risky for young people. They then went on to question the amount of education that young people receive surrounding online safety. Instead of just telling young people to be safe they believed that you could teach people methods on how to research a potential match, so you knew a bit more about them before meeting. For example, it was suggested in the mixed group that it is easy to look up a potential match on social media, see if you have mutual friends or ask them for an up-to-date picture while they are doing something specific etc:

PM4 – "There are more ways to work out if someone is real or not…… I mean I don't go on a date unless I have been on their Facebook, looked at this, that or the other and messaged them on snapchat so I know they are real, seen their face and seen them moving, and it's easy for people just to see who you are who your friends are and work out whether they are genuine or not and I think that is available for young people, when it wasn't there for us when we were 18/19."

Moreover, it was suggested that young people meeting a new partner could use calls and texts to friends and family to confirm they are safe, who they met are genuine and they are not in danger. Notifying a person, you are going to meet of this strategy may dissuade motivated perpetrators or may reduce the amount of unwanted sexual behaviour on a date if the individual knows there is some level of guardianship in place:

P5AF – "People should try and have a thing where they need to tell at least one person where they are going and when they are on their way home kind of thing, as you are effectively meeting a stranger and they could do anything, so potentially there are a lot of dangers there, but it is how you are looking after yourself, as well a lot of it."

P2M – "Tell someone to ring you or text you every hour or something to put safeguards in place."

The comments from the group help explain why those who use dating apps in the questionnaire sample were more likely to report overall and sexual contact victimisation. The suggestions made by participants could also potentially be used to improve or refine awareness strategies concerning online safety.

Young people are at higher risk as they take advantage of their newfound freedom, but undergraduate students have more opportunity to take risks

As well as young people being vulnerable due to reasons already discussed, participants believed that young people could be at risk of sexual assault and rape due to them taking advantage of a newfound freedom they feel when they start to engage in adult behaviour. Participants suggested that this freedom was felt by 1st year university students who move away from their childhood home for the first time and young people who entered into their first full time job and therefore feel financially independent for the first time. Therefore, it was common for participants to continually loop back to making sure that the group understood that assault can actually happen to anyone and any young person, not just undergraduate students:

P1M – "I think that it can happen to anyone, and anyone can perpetrate it. It comes down more to the individual and maybe what they have been told what is acceptable behaviour. Or maybe things that have happened to them in the past."

Participants noted that young people who enter full-time employment instead of going to university are still just as likely to engage in similar risky behaviours as students as they also have financial independence and freedom from their authority figures for the first time, as stated by one of the participants in the mixed group:

P4M – "You are still going out to clubs, though, aren't you?"

This statement was made in relation to non-student young people and their behaviour, which could explain the lack of variance between undergraduate students and other employments in their level of identified risk-taking behaviour in the questionnaire, as the participants believed that non-students still attended the groups definition of a high-risk environment. Moreover, being an undergraduate student only significantly contributed to the unwanted sexual contact and unwanted sexual contact by intoxication models, suggesting that young people in other employments were still at similar levels of risk for coercive assault or rape. This explanation also directly relates to work conducted by Buddie and Testa (2005) who suggested that there

was no difference between the vulnerability of students and non-students as they engaged in similar high-risk behaviour.

However, even though the participants agreed that all young people are at risk of sexual abuse as they all engage in similar risky behaviours, they believed that undergraduate students, especially first year students, were able to engage in risky behaviours and therefore potentially be at much greater risk than a young adult who has a full-time job, due to less responsibility and more time to engage in these behaviours. Moreover, both groups seemed to relate student abuse with unwanted sexual touching in environments, such as clubs and other night-time social settings, as one participant stated:

P4M – "you're out more, there is alcohol involved, not always but usually, you are more likely to bump into a lot of people you would not generally bump into…. generally, students are more likely to be assaulted definitely…"

Participants believed that 1st year students who were free from their authority figures for the first time by moving away to university were more likely to do 'stupid' things that put them at risk. Examples of 'stupid things' that 1st year students do include binge drinking and having negative experiences with alcohol, walking alone in unsafe areas, and going to meet strangers without letting anyone know where they are going, as shown in the following comments:

P1M – "I think it can sometimes be the first time you have had a heavy experience of drinking alcohol so if you have come to university and the training wheels are off, if you think I can do anything, you do not know how far to go, and other people could then take advantage…."

P4M – "When I think of it, I think of risks as things like not going out on your own at night and not walking through places like [local location] at night and that kind of thing, but just looking after yourself in that way and don't walk through a group of men as a lone female, like don't be stupid, that's what I think"

P6AF – "Yeah, I was an idiot when I went out drinking when I was younger, I used to put myself in all sorts of danger, I mean it's just what you do isn't it……"

Moreover, participants believed that first year students who enter accommodation away from home may be at risk of assault or rape from the people they are expected to move in with. For example, one participant gave an account of a friend who experienced assault in their accommodation:

P7AF – "Maybe also international students. When I did my masters I had a Greek friend and she had trouble and needed a cheap place to live and she had trouble, and she eventually got one, but it was like she was the only female in a group of guys, and there was one guy who had a girlfriend already so she thought she was safe and fine, but he started touching her at one time, and another time she came out of the shower and he was there naked or something, she had a lot of trouble then getting out of the house."

Additionally, participants thought that 1st year students who live away from home are pushed into a greater number of unfamiliar situations, which they thought could increase risk of assault or rape if they were alone and without guardianship, as well as the pressure 1st years feel to regularly attend social events and settings with their housemates, for example during fresher's week or going out in nightclubs:

P7AF – "I hate the term fresher's so much as I think it is like fresh meat and I'm like no."

P7AF – "And you have the fresher's fair and rag week and everything, they have it in Ireland and I'm not sure they have it here, but yeah."

P5AF – "Because that was the first time I moved out, living with halls, it's a really big change and I'd never really been out, I'd been out like four times before I went to uni and then that is all you do for like 3 or 4 weeks solid until lectures start. That is all you do, and you find yourself with new people and you don't know whether they can be trusted to help you out if you do have one too many on a night out. You end up in more risky situations and because you are away from home as well and you still don't know who to trust……"

The overall explanation of why 1st year students are more at risk of sexual violence made by participants coincides with a number of findings from the questionnaire. Firstly, 2nd year and 1st year students were found to significantly report more victimisation experiences than students in later years, which as the questionnaire was completed over a year would reflect some 2nd year experiences during their fresher year. Additionally, undergraduate students were more likely to report victimisation via intoxication, which has also been suggested to be a major contributing risk by the focus group participants. As these findings closely relate to other past research showing that 1st year student risk can increase vulnerability (Abbey et al., 2007; Camp et al., 2018; Franklin & Menaker, 2016; Fisher & Cullen., 2000; Lorenz & Ullman, 2016), the results from this study provide further evidence that students are at risk due to traditional

student behaviour. Moreover, the newfound freedom students feel as adults and their unwillingness to make sure they have support removes any level of guardianship that they had before university, whereas the behaviours they engage in increase their vulnerability and put them into contact with potential perpetrators. According to the RAT, this would leave young students open to a higher level of victimisation.

Overall, participants believed and have observed that 1st year students and young people in their first-time job can be exposed to and engage in a large number of risky behaviours, which would explain a number of findings from the questionnaire. However, as going to university for the first time, as well as the freedom one feels when they gain financial independence is an exciting time for any young person and offers invaluable life experience the question should not be how to stop this behaviour, but instead how to support young people so they can enjoy their experiences safely. During the discussion, participants also discussed a number of things young students can do to protect themselves, as well as ways that they can be supported. These have been discussed among other themes.

Normalising sexual assault in close quarter environments and the effect of alcohol

This theme encapsulates the overall participant agreement in both groups that unwanted sexual contact occurs with young people disproportionately in venues they attend on a night out, including pubs and clubs. The theme also covers the belief that these behaviours are generally accepted and expected among the youth population in the UK, which can account for the perceived low level of reporting these crimes and the lack of, or belief of a lack of support for these individuals in these environments. Moreover, as these environments are traditionally associated with alcohol consumption (Abbey et al., 2007; Lorenz & Ullman, 2016), participants believed that alcohol played a big part with increasing risk and lowering inhibitions in these environments. The identification of this theme directly relates to past research suggesting that young people, especially students, are at higher risk of sexual harassment in these environments (Franklin & Menaker, 2016), and, due to the regularity of the abuse, it has become widely accepted (Camp et al; 2018). The theme also potentially offers an explanation as to why bar/club behaviour was found to significantly contribute to identifying differences between victims and non-victims of overall victimisation, unwanted sexual contact, attempted rape and for experiences where the victim was intoxicated among a sample of young people in the UK.

The comments made by one participant highlight the belief of the groups that that young people are at risk of unwanted sexual contact in bars or other social settings compared to environments, such as supermarkets:

P6AF – "– yeah, you are more at risk of getting groped in a bar than the library. Like you were saying about Sainsbury's, it's the environment."

P6AF – "I have seen a lot of groping in social settings."

Moreover, participants reported first seeing a large amount of unwanted sexual contact being perpetrated against other young students when they were students in university themselves, and they believed that alcohol had a large role as more drunk young women seemed to be targeted to a higher degree than the ones who were sober:

P5AF – "It doesn't surprise me that a lot of people, you know, have come across it {groping/touching], because I have seen a lot myself, I mean more so when I was at uni when I was a student and I was going out, because to me a lot of it [groping/touching] does seem to be linked to going out and the drinking of alcohol more."

P2M – "I think that statistically that would be the case. Someone who goes out 5 times a week is more likely to get assaulted than someone who goes out once a week."

The takeaway from these comments is that bar and clubs in the UK are seen by young people as a high-risk environment for unwanted touching, which again explains the questionnaire findings and provides evidence that reinforce past research (Franklin & Menaker, 2016). However, participants only thought that public social spaces, such as bars and clubs would offer risk of unwanted sexual contact, and that more serious sexual crimes would have a higher prevalence rate in domestic or private settings:

P3M – "Surely there is no question about that. From my experience that [bars/clubs] is where the vast majority of sexual assault happens. Well by that I mean that sort of touching, groping, that type of thing, I know more serious side I'm aware happens in domestic settings, but in turns of frequency there is no question, those who go out to bars and drink more are more likely to be taken advantage of."

Participants thought that unwanted touching is more prevalent due to these behaviours being normalised in these environments. For example, participant comments suggest that young girls

may not know that what has been done to them is wrong or that it is expected and a normalised part of university life:

P5AF – "If I were out in a club as a student and someone was grinding up against me, if I was in a club I wouldn't really of thought too much of it, but if I am out shopping in Sainsburys then I'm going to think it's a problem..." `

P4M – "I don't think that's [groping/touching] sexual assault, as it happens so much all the time to me it is a normal occurrence when you go out, I don't see it as being assault"

Moreover, female participants said that a lot of young women would not seek support for unwanted sexual contact victimisation for a number of reasons. For example, they do not know who to go to for support, that there is no point making a fuss as it will happen to them again soon or that the authority figures in these environments do not help unless violence is involved:

P4M – "On what you determine is sexual assault and the environment as well, if someone say came up to the supermarket and grab your ass that, I'd be like 'ooo that's a little bit….what are you doing', but if it happened in a club I'd laugh it off and think it will probably happen again in another 10 minutes as I think the environment is totally different as well."

P3M – "….I remember the first time that someone told me this [unwanted sexual contact in clubs], I said 'why don't you call the police this, and people are grabbing you' and they said 'oh it happens all the time' and I used to say 'why don't you tell the bouncer', and they said 'oh the bouncer won't do anything', 'what do you mean the bouncer won't do anything?'….."

These comments made by the participants highlight how the overall culture surrounding public social spaces can breed an environment where individuals can perpetrate unwanted sexual contact against young, vulnerable targets with little worry about consequences. The participants suggested that they thought a number of things could be done to help make these environments safer, including educational programmes to teach young people about the dangers of these environments and empower them to be more confident in refusing attention, as well as more training and incentives for staff and bouncers to help:

P1M – "I was thinking what you said about the bouncers don't do much for victims, there needs to be more training, but then there needs to be more staffing and they have to be paid more because…"

(In response)

P4M – "They just roll their eyes like its awkward."

Implementing these changes could help to reduce the risk of these environments, while also allowing young men and women to continue to enjoy them socially.

Individual differences that can increase or decrease risk

The next theme reflects the belief that different young people in the same situation can be more at risk than others due to a number of attitudes towards relationships and individual history differences. Participants thought that those who had a history of observing abuse among others, such as between parents, or experiencing abuse in a past relationship may put young people at risk as they normalise similar behaviour and therefore do not attempt to protect themselves:

P1M – "I think we touched on it, but their homelife and their exposure to previous trauma."

P7AF – "I think also based on the project that I'm working on, if people have experienced abuse happening to parents at home or something may be more at risk as they have normalised the behaviour or may not take that kind of stuff seriously."

By normalising abusive behaviour, the young person may be unable to identify 'danger cues' (Franklin, 2010; Koss, 1985; Koss, 2011; Vicary et al., 1995) or know when to try and leave a dangerous situation, which would make them more of an attractive target to perpetrators as they would be able to harass them without much resistance. Past experience of abuse was not tested in the questionnaire and therefore highlights a potential area that could be investigated concerning young people in the UK and the relationship regarding a history of abuse and their current victimisation experiences. However, in regard to normalising abusive behaviour, these comments could potentially explain why watching pornographic material depicting forced sex was a significant contributor to a number of models predicting variance between victims and non-victims of overall victimisation, unwanted sexual contact, and attempted rape. This is because watching this violence in pornographic material may reduce an individual's ability to pick up on these 'danger cues' and therefore increase their attractiveness as a victim if they offer no resistance at first (Franklin, 2010).

Another part to this theme concerns participant beliefs towards how someone with different attitudes towards sex and relationships can be at risk. During the focus group, participants were asked their thoughts and observations on the idea that those who have a higher

number of consensual sexual partners are at greater risk. The discussion provided some division with participants of the mixed and all-female group, some thinking that it would as they would be less likely to identify 'danger cues', and some stated that they would be confident in what they wanted and be more able to refuse and protect themselves. However, participants concluded that those who have had little experience of consensual sex would be more likely to be victimised:

P3M – "I wonder if it could work the other way with other cases if perhaps someone had never had a sexual experience, and they are getting older and thinking or feeling bad about themselves or feeling left out, then if something comes along that would otherwise be deemed as too pushy or unwelcome then they may just go with it thinking, you know better get a notch on the bedpost or whatever and I don't want people thinking I'm prude or anything."

Moreover, participants thought that it depended on the attitude of the individual who had a higher number of consensual sexual partners to determine if they would be at higher risk. For example, if the young person were confident and knew what they wanted then they would be able to refuse unwanted attention, whereas those who were less confident and had more desperation for human contact would be more at risk as they would be less likely to identify 'danger cues' (Franklin, 2010):

P5AF – "…. because somebody who has had a lot of partners could know exactly what they want out of those partners and know what they don't want out of it and when to say that's not right, but also they might be somebody who is just really seeking some companionship and may be getting themselves into dangerous positions to try and find someone to be with them."

What can be taken from these comments is that individual risk factors may be dependant of individual differences, such as attitudes towards relationships, in regard to if they actually increase the risk of someone experiencing sexual abuse. These comments could potentially explain what differences were found between victims and non-victims of some assault types, but they ended up not being a contributing factor to the regression models. As the questionnaire did not look at these types of personality and attitudinal differences, this theme again suggests some future areas of research.

Finally, participants in the all-female group thought that those who had not lost their virginity by the time they reach university or their late teens, especially young men, may feel a large amount of pressure to lose it as soon as possible. Participants in this group believed that

this would increase the risk of individuals to both victimise and perpetrate unwanted sexual behaviour:

P8AF – "To play devil's advocate a bit, a lot of these people are virgins and its like that pressure that I'm at uni this is what I have to get done, that stigma of being a virgin as a late teen, it is kind of this opportunity around new people, get it out the way and that sort of challenge to find somebody and get it out the way and done."

Participants had observed that young people, especially young males, put a lot of onus on the age they lost their virginity, with an emphasis on the younger the better:

P6AF – "I have definitely seen lads on a work night out, and a bunch of us and I have definitely seen them going round and saying, 'everyone tells us your magic number and how old you were' and lads try and see who was the youngest and buy the youngest a drink, I'm like why does it matter?"

As past research as highlighted those men do feel a lot of pressure to lose their virginity and engage in sex regularly (Conell, 2005; Ford, 2018) it is possible that this may increase the risk of an individual. As they are less likely to admit to someone that they have not lost their virginity if they are 18-21 then they may not have adequate guardianship while they search for their first sexual partner:

P5AF – "I don't see guys talking to their guy mates saying, "yeah, I were 19", as I feel like it is a badge of honour for some guys, like with the students I work with at the moment I hear them say that they lost it at 14 and it's like a badge of honour for them."

Even though the questionnaire tested the pressure that individuals felt for their peers to have regular sex, a pressure to lose virginity was not included as it would have been difficult to contextualise the question within the project. However, it highlights another potential area of research to be explored with young people in the UK.

From this theme we can confirm that participants thought that past history with sexual abuse and other individual differences could react with other identified risk factors, such as a high level of consensual sex, and pressure to lose their virginity to put an individual at risk of sexual abuse.

Perceived dangers of sexting among young people

This theme concerns the participants thoughts and observations surrounding young adult sexting behaviours in the UK and the risk it could pose. Even though participants admitted that sexting is popular among any age group, they thought that young people were more likely to send sext messages due to their higher level of body confidence and their confidence with using social media, which also correlates with past research on sexting behaviours among young people (Dir & Cyders, 2015; Klettke et al., 2014):

P8AF – "I suppose loads of young people will send a lot of stuff as there is that barrier and they are not actually with the person, sending pictures just from having more body confidence. If it is just a picture you are not actually physically needed to do something in front of somebody, so a lot of young people can feel more confident with the pictures and the messages as well, with some pretty descriptive stuff, which is sometimes not nice."

When asked if young people may assume that sexting is an indication of consent, participants agreed that it was wrong, but that young people probably did think that receiving an explicit message indicated consent:

P4M – "I know it's not giving consent at all, but I think it can be perceived that if you send a naked picture, you are kind of up for it and I know that's wrong, but I think that if they are doing that then that means they are gonna wanna…… it's not right but that's the perception of it."

However, after discussion, the mixed group thought that sexting would probably not lead to an increase of sexual assault or rape risk, due to most people backing off once they realised consent was not given when two individuals met face to face:

P3M – "Yeah, I think it depends on the person. From my experience I do not know anyone who would push things past that point and use the pictures thing to try and gain any ground or anything, but I'm sure there are people."

The mixed group did think of two exceptions where sexting and other factors would increase risk. Firstly, a male from the mixed group said that sexting may just be another tool that perpetrators use to identify an attractive target, in which case it would not matter if they realised consent was not present as they would plan to abuse them anyway:

P3M – "Wouldn't that kind of person be pushy even without the pictures?"

Another reason stated by the all-female group is that young women, in their experience, are very confident on social media and have no qualms with sending very explicit messages:

P8AF – "But they are quite confident and some of the terminology they use in some of the messages is frightening and the graphic nature of some of them, but I suppose it is kind of, where do you go beyond the pictures and then it is when some of them feel obliged to physically meet up and then take things further."

However, if consent is implied by these messages and the young woman loses their confidence due to inexperience when they meet up, then the young woman may not have the confidence to indicate refusal, meaning that they may endure unwanted behaviour:

P5AF – "People feel a lot more confident behind a screen. So, it might not, I mean as you said, if people are going to meet up with them it then can be that the confidence might not be there anymore so that's where they might be where they are putting themselves in danger as if the other person may expect something they don't want to do, but because they have already sent messages, they feel like they can't really say no…"

The comments therefore suggest that engaging in sexting may not increase risk on its own, instead sending sext messages may only increase risk if engaging in this behaviour interacts with other factors, such as a lack of confidence or allows potential perpetrators to target an attractive victim, which is contradictory to the research (Maas et al., 2019). However, the discussions with the focus group offer a potential explanation for why sexting behaviour was found to only contribute to the variance models as a protective factor against rape and not increasing the likelihood that someone may be victimised.

The focus groups suggested that the biggest danger that sexting posed to young people was the risk that those they send their messages to can use them to blackmail a young person into performing unwanted sexual acts. Participants reported that they have heard of instances where someone has coerced a young person to send them a sext message then threaten them, they will share the image with family and friends if they did not have sex with them:

P5AF – "So what I have heard from a lot of young people that I am working with at the minute is that they sometimes feel pressured to do what they don't want to do because there is a threat of those messages and pictures getting out there, and in that moment they would rather do whatever has been suggested rather than those pictures going out as they don't want family or friends or anyone else that those pictures exist never mind see them."

P2M – "And people could start using it as blackmail to say, 'aw I've got this photo, I'm going to spread it if you don't do this, this, and this'."

The use of explicit messages to threaten others into unwanted acts has been identified through past research (Connor, Drouin, Davis & Thompson, 2018) and is seen as a major threat to young people in the modern age as it has a number of negative consequences, such as abuse and mental health issues (Klettke et al., 2014). As with online dating, participants suggested that more education on online safety may help young people avoid experiencing revenge porn, such as sending messages to those you trust or researching the individual if you have met them online.

When asked about whether they thought not engaging in sexting behaviours would protect young people from rape, as identified in the questionnaire, all participants agreed that not engaging in sexting would not reduce risk on its own. Instead, they believed that those who chose not to send sext messages would be more cautious with their online presence, as well as have more common sense, which they believed would reduce their risk. Therefore, personality and behavioural differences between those who do, and do not sext would explain why those who do not sext were less likely to report some types of victimisations in the questionnaire (Morelli, et al., 2020):

P1M – "I think it is mainly due down to the person and their familiarity of their own online safety. If someone doesn't want to do it as they don't want things getting out, then that indicates them being more savvy"

Overall, this theme suggests that sexting does not necessarily increase the risk of sexual abuse through creating expectations of sex among individuals, but it does increase risk of perpetrators targeting individuals who sext or use the explicit messages to blackmail individuals into unwanted sex. Increasing or refining education programmes about being safe when sending these messages may help to reduce some of the victimisation experienced by young people.

Perceptions of perpetrators, 'aggressive opportunists' or 'coercive tacticians'

The current theme concerns the participants thoughts and observations about the tactics that perpetrators use to target young people. Throughout the hour discussion, participants identified three main types of perpetrators that would use different strategies to abuse their victims. The first is what we will call the coercive tactician. Participants believed that these perpetrators

were the most common and would use threats, coercive language, emotional abuse, as well as drugs/alcohol to target or convince their victims to have sex with them:

P1M – "Like emotional manipulation, I think that is probably the most prevalent because as well maybe people do not realise that it is manipulation, they are more likely to go along with it and not even realise that they had been abused or assaulted…."

P6AF – "...coercion, try to manipulate the situation, by saying 'go on, have another drink etc'."

P2M – "I think drugs would be pretty high up there because of how easily accessed a lot of drugs are nowadays and they'll just slip it into a drink, won't even change the colour of it and they won't even know any different, they will just black out and be like 'oh I must of said yes'..."

Participants thought this was the most common type of offender as it offered the less risk to the perpetrator, which would be seen as prison time or negative reactions from their peers:

P1M – "I think prison time, I think it is a lot harder to prove with emotional manipulation and drugging, it's just harder for the victim, whereas I think if you have been raped, dragged down an alleyway or even if you have been held down by someone and date raped and that's different, you might have bruises, or go do a rape trauma kit in hospital, it's just easier to prove"

Examples of this type of perpetrator include those who blackmail young people with explicit [sext] messages they have sent them, as well as older women coercing young men/boys to have sex:

P1M – "[with sexting] there is going to be some people who push it [for sex], are manipulative or blackmail things like that"

P8AF – "Particularly for like young boys as well and perpetrators being older women. It's like them trying to get their youth back. There has been a couple of those that I've spoken to and it's kind of seen as them wanting to teach them something, and they don't see it as wrong to be doing, it's like a 'let's make you a man' type of situation, and then question 'are you gay if you say no', that's been quite a common thread"

The identification of this type of perpetrator by participants in their observations and experiences helps to explain the questionnaire result that coercion and intoxication were the

most common types of strategy used by perpetrators. Moreover, these comments identify similar findings to those identified in past research regarding the use of these strategies to reduce culpability and protect themselves more from the consequences of sexual assault (Abbey et al., 2007; Brown et al., 2009; Kilpatrick et al., 2007; Snead & Babcock, 2019). Participant comments also suggest that these types of perpetrators may play on the commonly accepted rape myths in society to excuse their behaviour and shift some blame onto the victim (Stephens et al., 2016).

The next type of perpetrator identified through participant comments is what we will call the aggressive opportunist. Participants thought these perpetrators would use force to make young men and women to have sex when the opportunity arose. Participants thought that these types of offenders would assault their victims when they are in private or the victim is alone, for example walking down the street:

P2M – "Or his instinctive sort of walking down the street, sees the prospective victim and decides in that moment that he will go and do it rather than the other type of person who has had their advances refused and strategizes to get round those means."

The comments made by participants suggested that these types of offenders would be very rare as this offers a greater risk to participants. Therefore, these types of perpetrators would not care much about the consequences of their actions:

P1M – "I'd assume that using force would be the least common as it seems like it'd more of a last resort."

P4M – "Yeah, I think it's less likely to be force, but if you didn't know them and it was a random attack, I think that would be more forced."

Suggesting that this type of perpetrator is rare when talking about young person victimisation in the UK would help explain why force was the least reported type of perpetration strategy in the questionnaire. Moreover, these comments, along with the questionnaire results, show that using force is as rare with both student and non-student populations UK as it is in student populations in the US (Fedina et al., 2016).

The final type of perpetrator identified by the focus group participants is an amalgamation of the previous two. These perpetrators were described as those who would use coercive or forceful behaviours to get a potential victim to give in to them and have sex, even

if they refused to begin with. The perpetrator would then think they had done nothing wrong as they would believe the individual had consented:

P4M – "I think there is a third one as well, where as you have got the guy, doesn't have to be a guy of course, but is more like he is doesn't know that it is assault, he's not sure, he just does it, like I'm going to go, I don't know, push that girl against the wall, try and kiss her and try and coax someone into having sex with you, whereas they don't think that that's assault, just like go on it will be fine. They do not know the damage that they are going to do to the other person, it's more like they don't know that it's assault, cause that it's kind of normalized behaviour for them, like it's a third type of person."

This type of perpetrator could potentially believe in stereotypical gender roles (Jozkowski et al, 2017) or the idea of 'token resistance' (Muehlenhard et al., 2016) to justify their actions. Therefore, they would believe that they are overcoming this resistance, or convincing a person to have sex with them, as stated in the below conversation extract:

P3M – "I suppose though that that type of person would consider the risk as well," presumably.

In response

P4M – "Maybe not under the influence…"

In response

P3M – "Well I suppose if they do not know that they are doing something risky..."

In response

P1M – "Well I guess that there will be a line that a lot of people in that category would draw where they wouldn't go to rape and they would recognise that it is too far, that it is wrong and illegal, but they will never question…."

In response

P4M – "They will go right up to that line, but if that person gives in then like it's not rape…"

In response

P1M – "And there is no line anymore."

The identification of these types of perpetrators through participant experiences and observations throughout this theme help explain why coercion, threat of force and intoxication are the most prevalent strategies used by perpetrators when targeting young people in the UK. Educating potential victims on these strategies and providing support in risky areas may again help to reduce the success of the perpetrators.

Young people negotiating consent in modern times

The last theme concerns the focus groups thoughts and observations on how young people negotiate consent and how this negotiation can lead to unwanted sexual contact. As found with the questionnaire results, and stated in past research (Jozkowski et al., 2014), participants believed that young adults are more likely to use indirect methods of asking for consent with a partner, such as body language, to avoid difficult, embarrassing situations:

P5AF – "It [explicit consent] kills the mood is what a lot of my students would say, Is that they would never actually say that in the moment because it is then ruined."

These comments were aimed at both male and female preferences and by both gender groups, thus potentially providing evidence suggesting that both young men and women in the UK prefer indirect consent communication so it does not 'spoil the mood'. These comments contradict past theory suggesting that women prefer more direct, explicit consent (Jozkowski et al., 2014). Even though participants thought that indirect consent is more popular among young people in the UK, they also thought that there was little chance that unwanted sex could occur due to a miscommunication of consent as a result of indirect methods of communication:

P3M – "No I probably think that [miscommunication] is quite rare that it's down to that and usually the perpetrator knows they shouldn't be doing what they are doing."

P1M – "I think that in those rare circumstances I think that it be something [communication] the perpetrator would be able to fix, like they realise it was wrong and would take steps to fix it, or I hope that would be the case."

The only miscommunication participants thought would occur is if an individual had changed partners and expected them to consent to acts that their previous partner had consented to:

P5AF – "..and then if you have been in a relationship for a long time and that's the way you get a response from the partner you are with and that ends and you get with someone else, and that might be the way that you initiate things and they might get to a point when they are saying 'what are you doing to me', but because you are used to that way then that can be difficult for somebody to then start changing that."

However, during the mixed focus group discussion a contradiction was found between the comments made by participants. This contradiction concerned if a person would be able to tell if their partner withdrew consent during a sexual act. At first, participants stated that it would be easy to tell if a person stopped consenting to an act as they would stop reacting, freeze or react negatively, such as cry:

P1M – "Well I think I go to the extremes in my brain as I think, if I started crying or stopped moving entirely then I don't know…"

In response

P4M – "You have to stop."

P2M – "If the other person is into it or intimate and the other person has stopped and starts crying then you'd assume the other person would be like 'Oh, what's going on?'"

However, later on participants tried to suggest that some accused perpetrators may not have realised that their partner had stopped consenting if they were 'in the middle of the act' and there was no explicit verbal or physical reaction:

P1M – "I mean it's a difficult one to define, If you are in the middle of doing something that up to that point was consensual, for it then to turn into assault after that there needs to be one of them to say stop or push them off or doing something. I think inaction at that point, I don't think you can call that assault if it just turns into inaction, unless they fall asleep doing something or something like that…"

This contradiction could potentially be an indication of the commonly held rape myth that it is not rape if they do not give a clear indication of non-consent (Payne et al., 1999). As participants put great stock in needing to stop when a partner stopped consenting, this finding suggests a need to dispel these myths and potentially educate young people what to look out for to make sure that their partner is still consenting or empower partners to give a clear refusal if they change their minds.

When asked about consent in relationships, participants agreed that asking for consent may be more prevalent in a relationship, which would contradict the findings of the questionnaire as young people were found to have a high acceptance of common sexual norms, not requiring consent in a relationship being one of them. This was suggested as it would be more difficult to indicate consent subtly to a partner you in a relationship with:

P1M – "Well I don't know, if you are in a long-term relationship, you are more likely to ask."

In response

P4M – "Do you want to? Go on or I can't be arsed today."

In response

P3M – "Yeah, because when you are with someone you have not been with before just that fact that you are in one of your houses and inviting them to bed, so that is a good indication of consent anyway, but you don't have that when you are in a relationship because you are doing that every night anyway, it's not an indication of sex."

As a result, participants did not agree that sexual abuse in domestic relationships would be a result of accepting this sexual norm. As the questionnaire did not differentiate between stranger, domestic and acquaintance sexual abuse, it is difficult to test the validity of this statement. However, accepting common sexual norms was not found to be prevalent more in victims than non-victims.

When asked about whether young people understand when a situation is consensual, participants believed that young men and women would understand when someone is not consenting to the more serious crimes, such as forced rape, which helps to explain the high level of understanding of consensual situations among the young sample in the questionnaire. However, they suggested that young people may not understand when unwanted touching is not consensual, which has been discussed in past themes. Moreover, when asked if participants thought that young understand what constituted as a sexual crime, the all-female group thought that may not fully understand due to conflicting information regarding what constitutes a consensual interaction by differing Laws in different countries:

P5AF – "– yeah, there is some discrepancies between what one country status it has to what others do, it's something I've look at not too long ago with some students about the official definition of it and in some countries it's impossible"

Additionally, young women, especially students, were described as sometimes not understanding that their experience was a crime. These comments would support the finding in the questionnaire that reported undergraduate students in the sample were less likely to have a higher understanding of when a vignette scenario was a crime by UK Law.

Overall, the points highlighted in this theme reinforce how young people in the UK prefer to communicate consent indirectly. Moreover, the theme potentially suggests why the acceptance of commonly held consent norms may not have been found to be more prevalent among victims in the questionnaire. This theme also identifies the potential effect of rape myths on perceptions of how to react when a partner changes their mind during a sexual act and also highlights the potential need to educate young people and students on what constitutes a sexual crime in the UK.

7.8 Chapter Conclusion

The main aim of this chapter was to use qualitative research methods to gain the thoughts and observations of young people in the UK and confirm and explain a number of the findings from the quantitative questionnaire. Overall, the focus groups provided rich and in-depth data that gave a unique insight into sexual assault and rape risk among post-18 young people in the UK.

The discussions highlighted a number of important themes that directly relate, confirm, and explain some of the findings form the quantitative questionnaire. Participants provided information on who they thought and have observed are the most at risk populations to sexual crimes and why, such as those from the LGBTQ+ community, students, and young women. Moreover, the focus groups described who they thought were more at risk due to a lack of knowledge, confidence and who had certain personality individual differences. Results also highlight the riskiest factors that young people think can lead to sexual assault victimisation, such as using dating apps, alcohol, and a lack of finances. The groups also highlight what they thought were the riskiest environments for sexual crimes and how young people normalise these behaviours as they feel that they are not supported enough in these environments. Finally, participants discussed potential ways that young people could protect themselves or where universities and town centres can provide extra support to reduce young person victimisation. Overall, participant comments highlighted the different ways that certain factors and

behaviours increase the vulnerability of young people coming into contact with potential perpetrators, as well as increase the attractiveness of them as a target.

The full implications of these findings, along with how they relate to each regression model that explains the variance between victims and non-victims of each sexual assault and rape category type investigated in this study is discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 8 – Final Discussion

To reiterate, the main aim of this project was to investigate sexual assault and rape victimisation and perpetration among the18-30-year-old population in the UK. To do this the project investigated prevalence levels of sexual crimes among the targeted population, differences between student and non-student populations, potential factors that increase risk of victimisation, as well as motivation to perpetrate these crimes and how sexual consent relates to victimisation. The current chapter will build on the discussion in chapter 6 to include findings and suggestions from the focus groups. The chapter will also identify the implications of the project, further limitations to the project and suggested future research.

8.1 Summary of Findings

Chapter 6 highlighted and discussed the main findings from the quantitative questionnaire studies, as well as speculating why some factors seemed to be associated more with reported victimisation or perpetration and a justification for why a qualitative focus group was needed. However, the current chapter will build on this to highlight the main points of the qualitative focus groups and bring the quantitative and qualitative results together to better explain the findings and visual models.

Interesting points derived from the Qualitative Focus Groups

When presented with the prevalence data obtained from the questionnaire, participants of the focus group were not surprised by the figure and instead suggested that they thought the number would be higher due to their own observations and the number of reports they have seen on social media platforms, such as reddit. These comments potentially suggest that true prevalence figures may still not be fully accurate and that many sexual crimes among young people may go underreported, as some research suggests (Javaid, 2015; Jozkowski & Humphreys, 2014; Jozkowski et al., 2017).

Even though participants of the focus groups thought that members of the LGBTQ+ community would be more at risk of sexual assault and rape, these statements were not

reinforced through the results of the questionnaire. However, the discrepancy between these findings could be due to the generalisation of the questionnaire analysis. Participants of the focus group specifically thought that young men who used dating apps for casual hook-ups would be more at risk of assault and rape than young women. As the questionnaire analysis grouped homosexual men and women together due to a low response rate from this demographic, the significance of this demographics vulnerability may have been masked. The comments from the focus group therefore prompt further investigation to determine if young gay men are indeed more vulnerable to sexual crimes in a UK sample. Moreover, focus group discussions highlighted the potential affect that a young person finances and past experiences with abuse may have on future vulnerability, which could prompt further investigation.

Finally, focus group discussions identified three main areas where young adults in the UK could be supported to reduce risk of sexual victimisation. Firstly, awareness and support programmes to increase a young person's knowledge about what constitutes as sexual abuse and that it is not acceptable in some situations, as well as methods to increase a young person's confidence in rejecting unwanted advances would better help protect vulnerable young people. Secondly, participants also believed that young people could be taught how to research potential partners they have met online or engage in safer meet ups with people they have met online to also reduce potential abuse. Finally, participants believed that there was little to no effective support in what they classed as 'dangerous situations', such as bars, clubs or walking home alone after a night out. Methods to increase support in these situations may therefore help protect vulnerable individuals and dissuade potential perpetrators.

Explaining how identified factors increase sexual assault and rape victimisation risk

Unwanted sexual contact in this project relates to groping or touching an individual sexually without their consent. The focus group participants explained that they thought the majority of this unwanted behaviour occurred in crowded, social environments, such as bars and clubs. They suggested that these environments were particularly dangerous as many young people expected this type of behaviour to happen in these places and that they normalised the behaviour, with some suggestions that young women lacked the knowledge and confidence to protect themselves in these environments. Moreover, due to the commonality and normalisation of unwanted sexual contact, participants believed that there was little support for victims of this behaviour in these environments. These statements reinforce the findings that bar/club behaviour was a significant contributor to predicting victimisation within the

regression models, with either higher levels of bar/club behaviour being significantly associated with unwanted sexual contact by intoxication victimisation or lower levels of bar/club behaviour being significantly associated with reported non-victimisation of unwanted sexual contact. Moreover, participants of the focus group suggested that undergraduate students would experience a higher level of unwanted sexual contact in bars/clubs compared to other young adults as they have more opportunity to frequent these establishments. Therefore, offering an explanation to why undergraduate students reported a higher level of unwanted sexual contact in the past 12 months and its significant contribution to the regression model in the quantitative analysis. Participants also explained that using dating apps is a potential risk of unwanted sexual contact as an individual is more likely to come into contact with a potential perpetrator as they may talk to a large number of individuals. Marital status was not found to be significant contributor to the regression model predicting unwanted sexual contact victimisation. Participants comments suggested that this finding is a result of the level of guardianship that having a partner gives an individual being ineffective against those who perpetrate unwanted sexual contact in bars or clubs as perpetrators are likely to target anyone due to the normalisation of that behaviour in those environments.

A high acceptance to the enjoying hard-core pornography question was the only variable that significantly contributed to predicting reported attempted coercion victimisation, thus suggesting that normalising more violent sexual behaviours may increase the likelihood of experiencing attempted coercion. However, this finding is difficult to explain with the current data available. Coercion relates to a perpetrator using threats, emotional abuse, and coercive language to engage in sexual acts they would not normally consent to. Therefore, to speculate, individuals who accepted more violent behaviour may find themselves in situations where perpetrators try and use coercive language to push them into other unwanted acts. Participants of the focus group believed that young men and women who had just entered university or turned 18 would be more vulnerable to being targeted by perpetrators using coercive tactics as they would lack the knowledge and confidence to reject them, although participants also noted that victims may not know the act, they suffered was wrong if they eventually gave into it, again due to a lack of knowledge. Moreover, participants of the focus groups believed that sexting could play a big part in coercion victimisation. Specifically, motivated perpetrators may use explicit messages sent to them by victims to threaten or blackmail the victim into unwanted sex, as they would be afraid of the perpetrator sharing the image on social media, or with friends or family. As a large proportion of study participants

had engaged in sexting behaviour, sending messages as a risk factor may not have been identified. As only one factor significantly contributed to the regression model differentiating between victims and non-victims of attempted coercion and the coercion model failed to be significant, these factors could be explored in more detail to see if they do increase victimisation risk.

In regard to reported rape crimes, those who reported a higher level of social behaviours in bars and clubs were significantly more likely to report attempted rape victimisation and attempted rape by intoxication victimisation, thus supporting participant claims that these environments may lead to victimisation vulnerability. Moreover, participants who believed that they had less behavioural control in a consent situation were more likely to have reported attempted and completed rape victimisation when the perpetrator used intoxication as a strategy, thus highlighting the interaction that holding this attitude towards consent when alcohol is involved. Even though participants of the focus group believed that having a partner or spouse was not an effective deterrent for perpetrators of unwanted sexual contact, those who reported having a partner or spouse were significantly less likely to report completed rape victimisation, thus highlighting how being in a relationship can be an effective protection against rape victimisation. Moreover, not engaging in sexting behaviours also seemed to be a protective factor against reported rape victimisation, although the focus group participants believed this was due to the overall personality of those who choose not to sext instead of the act of sexting itself being a risk to rape victimisation. This is because the participants believed that those who chose not to engage in sexting behaviours would also be more careful in other aspects of their life, such as where they socialise, who they spoke to and where they would go alone.

Participants were also included in the 'overall victimisation' category if they had reported at least one type of sexual assault or rape victimisation. Regression analysis determining the difference between victims and non-victims and the chance of predicting victimisation from a number of variables identified similar significant contributing factors that have been identified and discussed in other sexual assault and rape categories. However, female participants were significantly more likely to report overall victimisation than male participants, thus suggesting that young females may be more at risk to overall sexual victimisation, which was also suggested within focus group discussions. Moreover, the high acceptance level to the hard-core pornography question was a significant predictor of victimisation for the overall victimisation category, thus suggesting that normalising violent

sexual behaviours may increase vulnerability risk as these individuals are more likely to put themselves in dangerous situations.

8.2 Expanding on Visual Models to Include Focus Group Findings

Throughout this chapter so far, the results of the focus group have been discussed in relation to expanding our understanding of the initial quantitative findings and how they can better explain young adult victimisation. As a result of the qualitative themes generated through analysis, we can also expand upon the visual model first introduce in Chapter 6. See Appendix E for each adapted victimisation visual model by assault/rape type.

Victimisation

Figure 5 shows the updated visual model of victimisation with the main themes extracted from the focus group analysis. Qualitative themes identified potential factors that could increase young adult risk of abuse, such as 1st year students moving from rural to urban environments for demographical vulnerabilities, meeting someone from a dating app alone for behavioural factors and past experience of abuse for attitudinal factors. Moreover, the newfound freedom and independence felt by young adults when they come of age was thought to increase the extent that these individuals engaged in risky situations/environments, and how sexual violence, such as unwanted touching, is normalised in social environments. Finally, focus group participants commented on the lack of support present in social environments where sexual violence is normalised, the potential effect of financial status on a person's vulnerability to be victimised and how knowledge about how perpetrators target their victims, as well as confidence and experience to reject unwanted attention can be effective protectors against victimisation.

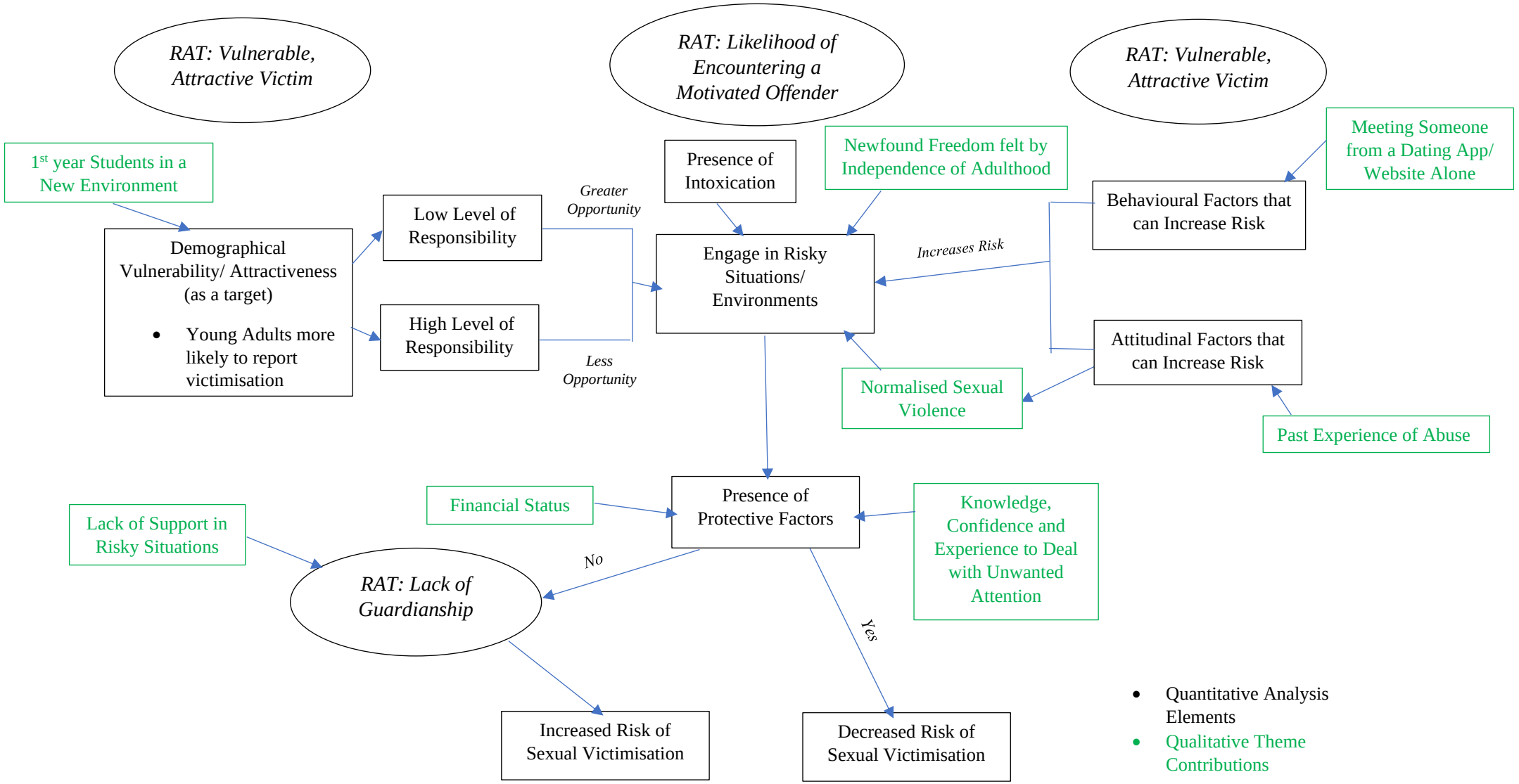

Figure 5: General Visual Model of Victimisation Including Focus Group Themes

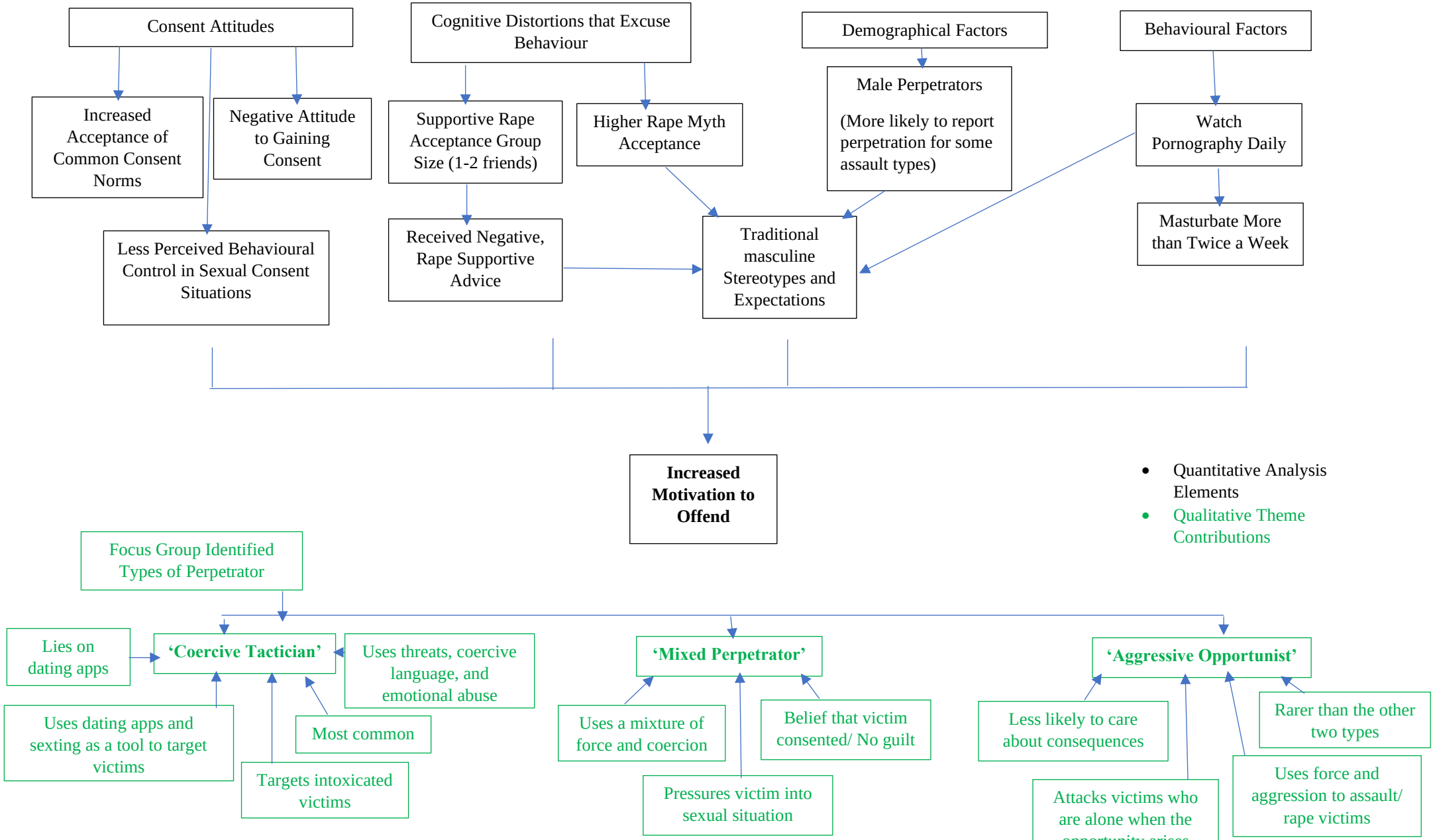

Figure 6: General Visual Model of Perpetration Including Focus Group Themes

Perpetration

In regard to the perpetration model, the three types of perpetrators and their associated factors were included within the visual model of perpetration (See Figure 6). These typologies are unable to be confirmed with the current data within this project. However, the comments made by focus group participants will allow for future research to build upon the foundation of these typologies, confirm whether these perpetrators are present and target young adults in the UK and expand upon the factors associated with each perpetrator type.

8.3 Project Implications

The implications of this project can be divided into three main areas: theoretical, practical, and methodological.

Theoretical

The findings of this project build on existing evidence that sexual assault and rape crimes are highly prevalent among 18-30-year-old people in the UK, such as that conducted by the NUS (2019) and the CSEW (2017). Additionally, the project expanded investigations of sexual assault and rape victimisation experiences from solely using those who attend university to try and include a wider sample of young people who are also in full time employment or left university and how their assault and rape experiences differ to students in the last 12 months. As a result of this expansion, it was found that there was no difference between risk factor engagement and whether a person was at university or not, thus suggesting that all young people may engage in similar levels of risky behaviour. However, as a result of this conclusion the findings of this project suggest that sexual victimisation among young adults in the UK has a greater complexity than can be explained with the base foundations of the RAT. Therefore, the likelihood of victimisation increasing through demographic vulnerability or with the engagement of risk factors will occur only when in conjuncture with a lack of protective factors or when interacting with other factors relating to the young persons lifestyle, such as their level of responsibility in relation to employment or the freedom they feel as a result of emerging adulthood. As a result, the findings of this project help us to better understand the differences between undergraduate students and non-students/other students in regard to sexual

victimisation and adds to our current knowledge about why undergraduate students may report higher levels of victimisation in some cases, such as unwanted sexual contact.

The project has also contributed to a clearer understanding of factors that can increase the risk of sexual victimisation among young people in the UK. A clearer understanding has been produced for factors that contribute to increasing the likelihood of victimisation, such as bar/club social behaviour and dating app use, or factors that were found to act in a more protective manner against sexual victimisation, such as having a partner or spouse or not engaging in sexting. Moreover, the project's findings also provide evidence that some of the tested factors that have been found to be significant contributors to victimisation in past research, such as peer pressure and past sexual history (Franklin, 2012), may not be significant contributors to victimisation in a young sample from the UK. The use of a mixed methods approach has meant that these findings have been tested through empirical analysis using a data set from a large sample of young people in the UK and confirmed through in-depth qualitative focus groups using young adults in the UK.

Additionally, another theoretical implication of this project was to reaffirm our understanding of young person sexual behaviours. For example, the preference of indirect methods of sexual consent communication, a large report of sexting behaviours among young participants and the potential role of online dating practices used by young people.

The findings of this project also highlight the need to look beyond vulnerable demographical groups in relation to sexual victimisation. As only looking at demographical groups resulted in a small explanation of variance between victims and non-victims within the regression models, and including behavioural, situational, and attitudinal risk factors, as well as consent attitudes, significantly increased the amount of explained variance, sexual victimisation needs to be investigated holistically so that a greater understanding of victimisation can be achieved. Consequently, a greater understanding of victimisation will lead to the improvement or creation of better support strategies for victims or potential victims.

As a result of the majority of these implications, the findings of this project have also helped develop a potentially strong theoretical foundation that future projects can look to expand. Each regression model has highlighted significant variables related to that type of sexual victimisation, which can be built upon and refined in future investigations. Moreover, the visual models for victimisation and perpetration developed throughout this project (See figures 5&6) has expanded upon the RAT explanation of sexual crime by breaking down each

factor related to a vulnerable victim, lack of guardianship and presence of a motivated offender to offer a greater understanding of the relationships between how each element can lead to increased risk of victimisation or motivate perpetration and to highlight the underlying complexities of each factor. Therefore, the models developed in this project have the potential to inform and guide future research of sexual victimisation and perpetration among 18–30-year-olds in the UK to help increase understanding to try and reduce the number of these crimes and increase support for current victims.

Even though there was limited evidence found to reinforce the projects hypotheses regarding perpetration, the obtainment of some perpetrator participants provided interesting findings about the demographical features of the reported participants, as well as the behaviours they reported, the victims they targeted and the strategies they used. Moreover, findings highlight some evidence that perpetrators were more likely to have higher negative beliefs regarding sexual consent, sexual behaviours, and traditional masculinity, as well as have peers who are rape supportive, which could increase perpetrator motivation. Finally, through focus group discussions there were three potential types of perpetrators identified who target young adults. By highlighting the overall aim of these three types of perpetrators, as well as some potential common characteristics, this finding provides an opportunity for future investigations to confirm, refine and expand on this potential typology. *Practical*

One of the main practical implications of this project is the evidence to help focus on who may be more likely to become a victim of sexual assault and/or rape and the factors that may put them more at risk, or factors that may be more likely to motivate perpetrators to offend. For example, those who have just turned 18 may engage more in risky behaviours or situations due to a newfound perception of freedom from entering into adult life. However, due to their lack of experience, knowledge and confidence and their attendance to risky situations where sexual violence is normalised, such as fresher week events, then they will be at increased risk of victimisation. However, the findings from this project suggest that there is little to no difference between young person engagement in risk factors, either with students or non-students, and that other factors play a major role on vulnerability, such as responsibility or marital status. Therefore, the findings from this project can help to better inform support strategies to protect these potential victims without forcing them to avoid engaging in the social events they want to.

Another practical implication of this project concerns how the findings can be applied to the creation or refinement of current educational/ support strategies for victims or prevention strategies for perpetrators. In regard to educational strategies, the conclusions of this project suggest that educating young adults about the potential dangers of engaging in riskier behaviours and situations when they are independent adults for the first time without the support structures, they had during childhood would help increase their knowledge and give them the opportunity to identify danger cues. Moreover, strategies that help young people to develop confidence in clearly communicating when they consent or how to escape a dangerous situation would also be beneficial in protecting potential victims. The use of older mentors may also be beneficial to share their experience of dangerous situations and how to avoid them or look for support. In regard to support strategies to reduce victimisation, the findings of this project suggest that young people should be educated on how to safely vet and meet someone they talk to online through either a dating app or website. Institutions, such as universities or the police, should also work with local entertainment and leisure businesses to increase support for those who may be at risk of victimisation, such as with the 'Ask for Angela' strategy. Educating staff to identify risk factors and providing a clear support strategy with dealing with those who are victimised, and their perpetrators will help dispel the belief that sexual violence is accepted in these environments and ensure they are safer. Perpetrator prevention strategies should address the negative beliefs and attitudes that distort cognitions and excuse perpetrator behaviour, which has a greater chance to motivate them to offend.

Finally, whereas some research has suggested sexual consent understanding can potentially increase victimisation risk (Hust et al, 2017; Muehlenhard et al, 2016), the findings of this project indicate that consent understanding did not seem to be associated with reported sexual victimisation. Moreover, overall consent understanding by participants was high. The project's results did offer some evidence that reported perpetrators were less likely to understand when a situation was consensual, although these findings may not be reliable due to the low perpetrator report rate. These findings could therefore suggest that teaching potential victims about consent may not be an effective awareness strategy as young people seem to already have a high understanding of when a situation is consensual or a crime, although these strategies may work on reducing perpetrator motivation. Instead, empowering young men and women to give clear non-consent in unwanted situations and teaching them how to exit assault situations safely may be of a greater benefit.

Methodological

The use of a Pragmatic philosophical and epistemological foundation for this project meant that a mixed methodology could be implemented with the flexibility to choose multiple data collection and analysis methods to best answer the research questions. Consequently, a large-scale questionnaire was conducted to objectively identify patterns and relationships concerning sexual victimisation and perpetration of a large sample of young adults in the UK, followed up by an in-depth, subjective exploration of the quantitative findings using qualitative focus groups. Using this methodology provided a more holistic understanding of sexual victimisation and perpetration of the target sample and allowed each research question to be successfully met. This methodology also allowed the development of visual models to further our knowledge of young person sexual victimisation and perpetration. Therefore, the use of similar methodologies when addressing similar issues, such as common, impactful crime, would be beneficial to highlight common trends, differences and relationships while also providing an in-depth explanation of those findings from the observations and opinions of the target sample.

8.4 Project Limitations

Chapter 6 highlighted a number of limitations concerning the quantitative questionnaire. However, while conducting the focus groups, a number of methodological and theoretical limitations can also be highlighted. Firstly, the generalisability of the results is limited due to the sample of participants used within the groups. As all participants were in their mid to late twenties, their thoughts and observations surrounding sexual assault and rape may differ to younger adults, such as the average age of university students (e.g., 18-21-year-olds). The issues highlighted in the focus groups and how they relate to the questionnaire results therefore may not be held by those younger age groups. Moreover, due to the emergence of coronavirus and the time constraints on the project, only 2 groups out of the originally planned 3 were conducted. This meant the exclusion of an all-male group, which would have allowed a greater comparison of the conversation dynamics between pure-gender groups and the mixed gender group. Moreover, due to the time constraints of the project, only 1 of each gender focus group was planned. As past research indicates that there should be at least 3 of each differing group to make sure that the results are as valid as possible (Kitzinger, 1994), only including 1 focus group consisting of each gender type may affect the validity of the findings.

Using a mixed methods approach to studying the research questions surrounding sexual assault and rape presents its own limitations. As the sequential explanatory methodology meant

that the qualitative interview guide was heavily based on results derived from the quantitative questionnaire, the questions themselves may not have encouraged full discussions around the topics presented to participants. Therefore, even though some new and interesting information was derived from the focus group discussions, the structure of the interview may have led to some important information being missed. Future research could look to reduce the number of precise questions given to participants around sexual assault and rape based on the findings of this project. This would lead to a more open discussion and encourage new information to be presented.

8.5 Suggested Future research

Through the discussion of the project's findings, several future areas of investigation have been identified. Firstly, the current research could be expanded upon by removing the potential risk factors that were not found to contribute to the models predicting victimisation and including potential new risk factors. As this project had to be selective with the factors it chose to include within the questionnaire, the inclusion of additional factors and the removal of superfluous factors will help to refine and improve the extent victimisation can be predicted, as well as potentially increase the variance explained in the regression models.

Additionally, two factors that were not previously considered as increasing sexual victimisation risk were identified during the focus groups. These factors were the financial capabilities of young adults in the UK and its relationship to sexual assault or rape risk, as well as a young person's past experience of observing and suffering sexual abuse and its effect on future victimisation risk. Investigating these factors will deepen our understanding of sexual victimisation risk among 18-30-year-olds in the UK.

Moreover, analysing reported perpetrator behaviour highlighted a number of potential factors that may increase motivation for individuals to perpetrate sexual crimes, such as the acceptance of traditional masculine norms, negative beliefs and peer advice that can lead to cognitive distortions that excuse perpetrator behaviour. However, due to the small sample size, these findings offer a theoretical foundation that future studies can expand with a greater data set. Additionally, confirming and expanding on the three-perpetrator typology as extracted from the focus group discussions would be another important area of future research.

Finally, a greater number of focus groups should be conducted with a larger selection of young adults, from both university and non-university settings. This will allow these projects

findings to be confirmed and for further themes to be developed relating to the thoughts and observations of a wider sample of young people in the UK.

8.6 Project Conclusion

The main aim of this project was to investigate sexual assault and rape crimes among a sample of 18-30-year-old adults in the UK and attempt to identify factors that may increase the risk of victimisation, as well as factors that may increase the motivation of offenders and compare experiences of students and non-students to determine victimisation differences. This research was needed as very few studies directly look to compare student and non-student samples in relation to sexual victimisation and past research had not looked to study factors that increase risk in as much depth. Through the use of a mixed methods approach, the project managed to identify the prevalence of sexual assault, sexual coercion and rape experiences among a young adult sample and a number of factors associated with victimisation through the use of a quantitative questionnaire. Regression analysis of the data also identified a number of factors that significantly contributed to predicting reported victimisation. These factors contributed to increasing the vulnerability of an individual or increasing the attractiveness of the individual as a target, removing adequate guardianship from potential victims, or increasing the likelihood that potential victims would encounter motivated offenders. Qualitative focus groups were then conducted to confirm the findings of the questionnaire, explain why some of these factors may increase victimisation risk and gain additional thoughts and observations from young people in the UK around sexual assault and rape victimisation.

Identifying factors that increase the risk of sexual victimisation has created a knowledge base that future research can build upon so that our understanding of sexual assault and rape among young adults in the UK can be increased. Moreover, the identification of these risk factors can help develop and improve awareness and support strategies aimed at reducing victimisation levels. Even though undergraduate students reported a higher level of victimisation for sexual assault experiences within the tested sample, the findings of this project suggest that non-student young people also engage in similar risky behaviours as students, and they also report a large proportion of victimisation experiences. The findings suggest that educational programmes and providing more support to potential victims in riskier situations will help reduce victimisation. Moreover, educational and support strategies should target all young adults in the UK and not just undergraduate students.

Sexual assault, coercion leading to unwanted sexual acts and rape are common crimes among young adults in the UK. Future research should build upon that provided in this project to help better understand factors that lead to victimisation so that effective support strategies aimed at increasing potential victim safety without forcing them to stop behaving in a certain way can be developed.

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Appendix

Appendix A – Ethical Considerations

Due to the sensitive nature of the topics discussed in this project, a number of ethical considerations needed to be put in place to make sure that the questionnaire and focus groups were conducted in as much of an ethical manner as possible.

In regard to the questionnaire, participants were fully debriefed at the end of the survey and were given the contact details of the researcher and also the details of any support services that may be useful to them if they became upset or distressed with the content of the survey. Participants were also advised that they were guaranteed confidentiality and anonymity with their responses and that the data would be kept on a secure server. Full agreement was also obtained from participants in regard to using their data if they completed the prevalence or consent sections of the questionnaire but did not fully complete it. Participants were given the opportunity to finish the survey at any point if they needed to.

For the focus group study, participants were fully briefed and debriefed about the topics that they were asked to discuss during the study and before they agreed to take part. Participants were also told they could contact the researcher at any time if they had any questions or worries about the topics that would be discussed to try and help alleviate any worries the participants would have. Moreover, to increase participant comfort, each participant was given the choice of which group they would prefer to go with (all-male, all-female, or mixed) and given the option to change their mind at any point up to the start of the discussion.

Participant anonymity has been assured through the anonymisation of all discussion transcripts and all identifying data, which was needed in case participants wished to withdraw, was kept in a locked office, in a locked drawer on University campus. Even through confidentiality could not be assured as participants discussed their opinions and observations with others, participants were asked to keep the information they heard confidential and all identifying information was kept in a secure location.

Participants were asked to give full consent at the start of the project. However, participants were told they had the right to withdraw all data. This included after the study, where each participant received a transcript of their contribution to the discussion. They could then identify information to be removed or remove the whole thing. Participants had 2 weeks to review the information and let the researcher know if they wanted anything removing.

A detailed, relevant support service list was given to participants at the start and end of the study in case they became distressed or upset with the content of the discussion. The researcher also had a detailed plan of how to pause or stop the discussion if participants became upset or aggressive. To make sure participants were as comfortable as possible, a female research assistant supported the discussions in groups with females so that female participants could disclose to them if they felt they needed to. Participants were asked if they were comfortable with the male researcher sitting in on the discussions, which all female participants agreed to.

Appendix B – Questionnaire Materials

Appendix B i- Questionnaire information sheet

Thank you for following the online link. You are now invited to take part in this questionnaire examining the sexual understanding and experiences of young people in the UK. Please make sure that you read and understand all the information below before continuing on to the next section of the questionnaire. If you wish to enter the prize draw, then please make sure you read the information about how you can at the end of this page.

What will be asked of you in the questionnaire?

After you have read the information on this page and selected to continue you will be asked to confirm your understanding and consent to take part in the questionnaire. After giving consent you will then be asked to provide some information about yourself. Please be aware that this information, as well as your answers to other questions, will be kept completely confidential and no name or contact information will be linked to your replies.

You will then be taken to a number of sections that will ask about your previous sexual experiences, your opinions about certain scenarios, and how much you agree with certain statements. Please try to answer all of the questions that are presented to you. To continue to each section please press the **'Next'** tab at the bottom of every page. If you would like to finish the questionnaire early for any reason you can do so by selecting **'Finish'** on any page. The questionnaire will take about 40 minutes to complete, so your patience and time are very much appreciated.

Once you have finished the questionnaire you will be asked to read a short de-brief page that will explain more about the research, as well as give you an opportunity to enter the prize draw. Please do not forget to select **'Submit'** after reading this information and entering the prize draw, as your answers will not be saved otherwise.

A warning about the content of the questionnaire

This questionnaire does include content of a sexual nature that also includes questions about sexual assault, as well as scenario descriptions about sexual assault that may be considered graphic by some. Therefore, the researchers suggest that if you are easily upset by such content, you should not take part in this questionnaire.

You should also be aware that you have the right to withdraw from the questionnaire at any time, especially if you feel distressed by any content viewed. To do this please select the **'Finish'** tab, which is located at the bottom of every page. You will then be taken to another page, where you will be de-briefed. Please be aware that any responses you have already provided before finishing will still be used in the project.

If you continue to feel distressed or feel upset at a later date by the content, then you will be given the contact details for the researchers, as well as details for a number of support groups that will be able to help you. This information is also at the bottom of this page.

What will happen with my data?

As your data is fully confidential it will never be able to be linked back to you. As such, once you have submitted your answers it will be impossible to locate your exact data, and therefore impossible for you to withdraw. Therefore, please make sure you are happy to submit before doing so at the end of the questionnaire.

Your data will be collated with all the other participants' responses and analysed for the benefit of this research. This analysis and data file will be held securely for 10 years under the policy of the University of Huddersfield.

How to enter the prize draw

After completing the questionnaire, you will be asked if you would like to enter a prize draw for a number of Amazon vouchers. The prizes are one £100, and two £20 vouchers that can be spent at Amazon. To enter please follow the link at the end of the questionnaire and enter your name and email address. Please be aware that this information will be kept on a separate system and cannot be linked back to your questionnaire responses. Your name and email address will also be deleted after the prizes have been drawn. The prize draw will occur after all the data has been collected, and you will be notified via email if you are a winner.

Please do not forget to **'Submit'** your answers after entering the prize draw or they will not be saved.

Please see the support information below and click **'Next'** to continue the questionnaire.

If you have any issues, then please contact one of the research team via:

Main researcher: John Pearson – John.Pearson@hud.ac.uk

Supervisors – John Synnott – J.P.Synnott@hud.ac.uk

Maria Ioannou – M.Ioannou@hud.ac.uk

Support Services - Contact Information

University of Huddersfield – Wellbeing Services

Central service building – Level 4

Queensgate Campus

HD1 3DH

Tel – 01484 472227

Opening Hours: Monday to Friday 9.00am – 5.00pm

Rape Crisis – England and Wales

National Helpline – 08088029999

Website for Information about your Nearest Services - https://rapecrisis.org.uk/centres.php

Email for General Enquiries - rcewinfo@rapecrisis.org.uk

Samaritans

Freephone – 116 123 (Available 24/7)

Email – jo@samaritans.org.uk

Website to Find Local Branch - http://www.samaritans.org

Victim Support

Website to Find Local Support - https://www.victimsupport.org.uk/help-and-support/get-help

National Support Line – 03003031971

Appendix B ii- Questionnaire consent form

Please take time to carefully read each statement below and select the statements that are correct, and you agree to take part in this questionnaire.

I fully understand what I will be asked to do in this questionnaire. ☐

*I understand that I can withdraw from this questionnaire at any time by selecting '***Finish'** *on any page.* ☐

I understand that all information that is given in this questionnaire is kept confidential, and there will be no information asked for that will identify me. ☐

I understand that after the questionnaire has been completed it will be impossible to withdraw my specific information, due to confidentiality. ☐

In summary I consent to take part in the project that has been fully explained to me. ☐

I also understand that any information I give before I withdraw will still be used in the project, even if I finish early. ☐

Appendix B iii- Questionnaire Debrief

Thank you for your participation in this questionnaire. The answers that you have provided, as well as the time you have given towards this research are greatly appreciated. Please read the information below and choose whether to **submit** your answers.

The research itself was to investigate sexual vulnerabilities of young people in relation to sexual assault, and which factors may increase the chances of a young person becoming a victim or perpetrator of sexual assault. It was estimated by the Home Office in 2013 that there are around 500,000 sexual assaults in the UK every year, although only roughly 20% of these are reported to the authorities, leaving over 80% unreported. Other surveys have also identified that one of the most vulnerable populations are those between the ages of 16 and 25. It was therefore the aim of the research to identify which factors, that have been identified in American studies, lead to young people either becoming victims or perpetrators of sexual assault. The questionnaire therefore aimed to measure your sexual experiences, concept of sexual consent and other factors that may cause vulnerability. Once again, all answers given are confidential and cannot be linked back to you.

It is hoped that as there is little research on young people and sexual assault in the UK, the answers you have given will help to build a strong data set that will not only help sexual assault prevention strategies, but that could also be used for future research so that we can understand the causes and processes of sexual assault in more depth.

As this survey has the potential to be completed by your friends and family, we ask that you do not discuss the purpose of this study with anybody who may become a participant at a later date. However, this does not apply to any situation you may feel upset or distressed by the content in the questionnaire. In such cases we recommend you refer to the contact details below of the free support services available.

If you know anyone who may be interested in taking part in this study, we ask you to forward the email you received to them. However please do not disclose or discuss the nature or content of the questionnaire, as this could invalidate the contributions given.

If you would like to take part in the prize draw as indicated in the information sheet, then please also click the link below to open up the entry form in a different window. Please remember any information will not be linked to any of your answers given in this questionnaire. However please do not forget to **Submit** your answers after.

If you have any issues, then please contact one of the research team via:

Main researcher: John Pearson – John.Pearson@hud.ac.uk

Supervisors – John Synnott – J.P.Synnott@hud.ac.uk

Maria Ioannou – M.Ioannou@hud.ac.uk

We thank you again for your participation in this study. Please do not forget to choose to **Submit** your answers at the bottom of this page.

Support Services - Contact Information

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Queensgate Campus

HD1 3DH

Tel – 01484 472227

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Rape Crisis – England and Wales

National Helpline – 08088029999

Website for Information about your Nearest Services - https://rapecrisis.org.uk/centres.php

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Freephone – 116 123 (Available 24/7)

Email – jo@samaritans.org.uk

Website to Find Local Branch - http://www.samaritans.org

Victim Support

Website to Find Local Support - https://www.victimsupport.org.uk/help-and-support/get-help

National Support Line – 03003031971

Appendix B iv- Questionnaire early de-brief

De-Brief – Finished Early

Thank you for taking the time for starting this questionnaire. You have selected to **Finish** the questionnaire early. If this is down to any questions either upsetting you or causing distress, then please see the support information below. If you require any further support, then please contact the researchers.

The research itself was to investigate sexual vulnerabilities of young people in relation to sexual assault, and which factors may increase the chances of a young person becoming a victim or perpetrator of sexual assault. It was estimated by the Home Office in 2013 that there are around 500,000 sexual assaults in the UK every year, although only roughly 20% of these are reported to the authorities, leaving over 80% unreported. Other surveys have also identified that one of the most vulnerable populations are those between the ages of 16 and 25. It was therefore the aim of the research to identify which factors, that have been identified in American studies, lead to young people either becoming victims or perpetrators of sexual assault. The questionnaire therefore aimed to measure your sexual experiences, concept of sexual consent and other factors that may cause vulnerability. Once again, all answers given are confidential and cannot be linked back to you, and any answers already given will still be used in the project.

It is hoped that as there is little research on young people and sexual assault in the UK, the answers you have given will help to build a strong data set that will not only help sexual assault prevention strategies, but that could also be used for future research so that we can understand the causes and processes of sexual assault in more depth.

As this survey has the potential to be completed by your friends and family, we ask that you do not discuss the purpose of this study with anybody who may become a participant at a later date. However, this does not apply to any situation you may feel upset or distressed by the content in the questionnaire. In such cases we recommend you refer to the contact details below of the free support services available.

If you know anyone who may be interested in taking part in this study, we ask you to forward the email you received to them. However please do not disclose or discuss the nature or content of the questionnaire, as this could invalidate the contributions given.

If you would like to take part in the prize draw as indicated in the information sheet, then please also click the link below to open up the entry form in a different window. However please do not forget click **Finish** after.

If you have any issues, then please contact one of the research team via:

Main researcher: John Pearson – John.Pearson@hud.ac.uk

Supervisors – John Synnott – J.P.Synnott@hud.ac.uk

Maria Ioannou – M.Ioannou@hud.ac.uk

We thank you again for your consideration in participating in this study.

Support Services - Contact Information

University of Huddersfield – Wellbeing Services

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Website to Find Local Branch - http://www.samaritans.org

Victim Support

Website to Find Local Support - https://www.victimsupport.org.uk/help-and-support/get-help

National Support Line – 03003031971

Appendix B v- Questionnaire Demographics

Please answer the following questions about yourself:

Age:

Please type your age in years in the box below.

☐

Gender:

Please indicate the gender you identify with?

Male ☐

Female ☐

Transgendered ☐

Sexuality:

Please indicate your sexuality?

Heterosexual ☐

Homosexual ☐

Bisexual ☐

Ethnicity:

What is your ethnicity?

Please choose the one option that best describes your ethnic group or background

White

English / Welsh / Scottish / Northern Irish / British ☐

Irish ☐

Gypsy or Irish Traveller ☐

Any other White background, please indicate below

☐

Mixed / Multiple ethnic groups

White and Black Caribbean ☐

White and Black African ☐

White and Asian ☐

Any other Mixed / Multiple ethnic background, please indicate below:

☐

Asian / Asian British

Indian ☐

Pakistani ☐

Bangladeshi ☐

Chinese ☐

Any other Asian background, please indicate below:

☐

Black / African / Caribbean / Black British

African ☐

Caribbean ☐

Any other Black / African / Caribbean background, please indicate below:

☐

Other ethnic group

Arab ☐

Any other ethnic group, please indicate below:

☐

Religion:

What is your religious preference?

Jewish ☐

Roman Catholic ☐

Muslim ☐

Protestant ☐

An Orthodox church such as the Greek or Russian Orthodox Church ☐

Mormon ☐

Something else (please specify) ☐

Highest Current Education:

What is your current highest level of education?

GCSE/BTEC LVL 2 Qualification or Equivalent ☐

A level/BTEC LVL3 Qualification or Equivalent ☐

Undergraduate Degree ☐

Postgraduate Degree/Masters/Diploma or Equivalent ☐

PGCE, Teacher Training Qualification or Equivalent ☐

PhD ☐

Employment Status:

Employed ☐

Unemployed ☐

Apprenticeship ☐

Undergraduate Student at University ☐

Postgraduate Student at University ☐

Student Other ☐

Marital Status:

Single/Never Been Married ☐

Partnered/Never Been Married ☐

Married or Domestic Partnership ☐

Separated ☐

Divorced ☐

(If Student at University)

Year at University:

Which year are you currently in at University?

First Year ☐

Second Year ☐

Third Year ☐

Fourth Year or Above ☐

Where do you currently live?

In the area of the University ☐

Walking distance to the University ☐

Further Afield ☐

During your childhood, would you describe your parent/parents or carers as either?

Strict ☐

Liberal ☐

Had elements of both ☐

Please indicate the relationship of your parent/parents or carers:

Single ☐

Married ☐

Separated ☐

Divorced ☐

N/A ☐

Other ☐

Which area of the UK did you originally grow up in? If you did not grow up in the UK, please identify where you did in 'other'.

Northeast England ☐

Northwest England ☐

Yorkshire and Humber (England) ☐

East Midlands ☐

West Midlands ☐

East England ☐

Southeast ☐

Southwest ☐

Greater London ☐

Scotland ☐

Wales ☐

Northern Ireland ☐

Other (Please Specify) ☐

Appendix B vi- Questionnaire SES-R Survey

The following questions concern sexual experiences that you may have had that were unwanted. Place a check mark in the box ☐ showing the number of times each experience has happened to you. If several experiences occurred on the same occasion--for example, if one night someone told you some lies and had sex with you when you were drunk, you would check both boxes a and c. The past 12 months refers to the past year going back from today. Since age 14 refers to your life starting on your 14th birthday and stopping one year ago from today.

Sexual Experiences	**How many times in the past 12 months?**	**How many times since age 14?**
Someone fondled, kissed, or rubbed up against the private areas of my body (lips, breast/chest, crotch, or butt) or removed some of my clothes without my consent *(but did not attempt sexual penetration)* by:		
	0 1 2 3+	0 1 2 3+
a. Telling lies, threatening to end the relationship, threatening to spread rumors about me, making promises I knew were untrue, or continually verbally pressuring me after I said I didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
b. Showing displeasure, criticizing my sexuality or attractiveness, getting angry but not using physical force, after I said I didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
c. Taking advantage of me when I was too drunk or out of it to stop what was happening.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
d. Threatening to physically harm me or someone close to me.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
e. Using force, for example holding me down with their body weight, pinning my arms, or having a weapon.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐

2.	**Someone had oral sex with me or made me have oral sex with them without my consent by:** a. Telling lies, threatening to end the relationship, threatening to spread rumors about me, making promises I knew were untrue, or continually verbally pressuring me after I said I didn't want to. b. Showing displeasure, criticizing my sexuality or attractiveness, getting angry but not using physical force, after I said I didn't want to. c. Taking advantage of me when I was too drunk or out of it to stop what was happening. d. Threatening to physically harm me or someone close to me. e. Using force, for example holding me down with their body weight, pinning my arms, or having a weapon.	0 1 2 3+ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐	0 1 2 3+ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐

		How many times in the past 12 months?	**How many times since age 14?**
3.	**If you are a male, check box and skip to item 4** ☐ **A man put his penis into my vagina, or someone inserted fingers or objects without my consent by:** a. Telling lies, threatening to end the relationship, threatening to spread rumors about me, making promises I knew were untrue, or continually verbally pressuring me after I said I didn't want to. b. Showing displeasure, criticizing my sexuality or attractiveness, getting angry but not using physical force, after I said I didn't want to. c. Taking advantage of me when I was too drunk or out of it to stop what was happening. d. Threatening to physically harm me or someone close to me. e. Using force, for example holding me down with their body weight, pinning my arms, or having a weapon.	0 1 2 3+ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐	0 1 2 3+ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐

4.	**A man put his penis into my butt, or someone inserted fingers or objects without my consent by:** a. Telling lies, threatening to end the relationship, threatening to spread rumors about me, making promises I knew were untrue, or continually verbally pressuring me after I said I didn't want to. b. Showing displeasure, criticizing my sexuality or attractiveness, getting angry but not using physical force, after I said I didn't want to. c. Taking advantage of me when I was too drunk or out of it to stop what was happening. d. Threatening to physically harm me or someone close to me. e. Using force, for example holding me down with their body weight, pinning my arms, or having a weapon.	0 1 2 3+ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐	0 1 2 3+ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐

5.	**Even though it didn't happen, someone TRIED to have oral sex with me, or make me have oral sex with them without my consent by:** a. Telling lies, threatening to end the relationship, threatening to spread rumors about me, making promises I knew were untrue, or continually verbally pressuring me after I said I didn't want to. b. Showing displeasure, criticizing my sexuality or attractiveness, getting angry but not using physical force, after I said I didn't want to. c. Taking advantage of me when I was too drunk or out of it to stop what was happening. d. Threatening to physically harm me or someone close to me. e. Using force, for example holding me down with their body weight, pinning my arms, or having a weapon.	0 1 2 3+ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐	0 1 2 3+ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐ ☐☐☐☐

		How many times in the past 12 months?	How many times since age 14?
6.	**If you are male, check this box and skip to item 7.** ☐ **Even though it didn't happen, a man TRIED to put his penis into my vagina, or someone tried to stick in fingers or objects without my consent by:**	0 1 2 3+	0 1 2 3+
	a. Telling lies, threatening to end the relationship, threatening to spread rumors about me, making promises I knew were untrue, or continually verbally pressuring me after I said I didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	b. Showing displeasure, criticizing my sexuality or attractiveness, getting angry but not using physical force, after I said I didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	c. Taking advantage of me when I was too drunk or out of it to stop what was happening.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	d. Threatening to physically harm me or someone close to me.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	e. Using force, for example holding me down with their body weight, pinning my arms, or having a weapon.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐

7.	**Even though it didn't happen, a man TRIED to put his penis into my butt, or someone tried to stick in objects or fingers without my consent by:**	0 1 2 3+	0 1 2 3+
	a. Telling lies, threatening to end the relationship, threatening to spread rumors about me, making promises I knew were untrue, or continually verbally pressuring me after I said I didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	b. Showing displeasure, criticizing my sexuality or attractiveness, getting angry but not using physical force, after I said I didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	c. Taking advantage of me when I was too drunk or out of it to stop what was happening.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	d. Threatening to physically harm me or someone close to me.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	e. Using force, for example holding me down with their body weight, pinning my arms, or having a weapon.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐

8. Did any of the experiences described in this survey happen to you 1 or more times? Yes ☐ No ☐

   What was the sex of the person or persons who did them to you?

   Female only ☐

   Male only ☐

   Both females and males ☐

   I reported no experiences ☐

9. Have you ever been raped? Yes ☐ No ☐

The following questions again concern your past sexual experiences. We know these are personal questions, so we do not ask your name or other identifying information. Your information is completely confidential. We hope this helps you to feel comfortable answering each question honestly. Place a check mark in the box ☐ showing the number of times each experience has happened. If several experiences occurred on the same occasion--for example, if one night you told some lies and had sex with someone who was drunk, you would check both boxes a and c. The past 12 months refers to the past year going back from today. Since age 14 refers to your life starting on your 14th birthday and stopping one year ago from today.

	Sexual Experiences	**How many times in the past 12 months?**	**How many times since age 14?**
1.	**I fondled, kissed, or rubbed up against the private areas of someone's body (lips, breast/chest, crotch, or butt) or removed some of their clothes without their consent *(but did not attempt sexual penetration)* by:**		
		0 1 2 3+	0 1 2 3+
	a. Telling lies, threatening to end the relationship, threatening to spread rumors about them, making promises about the future I knew were untrue, or continually verbally pressuring them after they said they didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	b. Showing displeasure, criticizing their sexuality or attractiveness, getting angry but not using physical force after they said they didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	c. Taking advantage when they were too drunk or out of it to stop what was happening.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	d. Threatening to physically harm them or someone close to them.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	e. Using force, for example holding them down with my body weight, pinning their arms, or having a weapon.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐

2.	**I had oral sex with someone or had someone perform oral sex on me without their consent by:**	0 1 2 3+	0 1 2 3+
	a. Telling lies, threatening to end the relationship, threatening to spread rumors about them, making promises about the future I knew were untrue, or continually verbally pressuring them after they said they didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	b. Showing displeasure, criticizing their sexuality or attractiveness, getting angry but not using physical force after they said they didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	c. Taking advantage when they were too drunk or out of it to stop what was happening.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	d. Threatening to physically harm them or someone close to them.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	e. Using force, for example holding them down with my body weight, pinning their arms, or having a weapon.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐

		How many times in the past 12 months?	**How many times since age 14?**
3.	**I put my penis (men only), or I put my fingers or objects (all respondents) into a woman's vagina without her consent by:**	0 1 2 3+	0 1 2 3+
	a. Telling lies, threatening to end the relationship, threatening to spread rumors about them, making promises about the future I knew were untrue, or continually verbally pressuring them after they said they didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	b. Showing displeasure, criticizing their sexuality or attractiveness, getting angry but not using physical force after they said they didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	c. Taking advantage when they were too drunk or out of it to stop what was happening.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	d. Threatening to physically harm them or someone close to them.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	e. Using force, for example holding them down with my body weight, pinning their arms, or having a weapon.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐

4.	**I put in my penis (men only), or I put my fingers or objects (all respondents) into someone's butt without their consent by:**	0 1 2 3+	0 1 2 3+
	a. Telling lies, threatening to end the relationship, threatening to spread rumors about them, making promises about the future I knew were untrue, or continually verbally pressuring them after they said they didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	b. Showing displeasure, criticizing their sexuality or attractiveness, getting angry but not using physical force after they said they didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	c. Taking advantage when they were too drunk or out of it to stop what was happening.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	d. Threatening to physically harm them or someone close to them.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	e. Using force, for example holding them down with my body weight, pinning their arms, or having a weapon.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
5.	**Even though it did not happen, I TRIED to have oral sex with someone or make them have oral sex with me without their consent by:**	0 1 2 3+	0 1 2 3+
	a. Telling lies, threatening to end the relationship, threatening to spread rumors about them, making promises about the future I knew were untrue, or continually verbally pressuring them after they said they didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	b. Showing displeasure, criticizing their sexuality or attractiveness, getting angry but not using physical force after they said they didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	c. Taking advantage when they were too drunk or out of it to stop what was happening.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	d. Threatening to physically harm them or someone close to them.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
.	e. Using force, for example holding them down with my body weight, pinning their arms, or having a weapon.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐

		How many times in the past 12 months?	How many times since age 14?
6.	**Even though it did not happen, I TRIED put in my penis (men only) or I tried to put my fingers or objects (all respondents) into a woman's vagina without their consent by:**	0 1 2 3+	0 1 2 3+
	a. Telling lies, threatening to end the relationship, threatening to spread rumors about them, making promises about the future I knew were untrue, or continually verbally pressuring them after they said they didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	b. Showing displeasure, criticizing their sexuality or attractiveness, getting angry but not using physical force after they said they didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	c. Taking advantage when they were too drunk or out of it to stop what was happening.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	d. Threatening to physically harm them or someone close to them.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	e. Using force, for example holding them down with my body weight, pinning their arms, or having a weapon.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐

7.	**Even though it did not happen, I TRIED to put in my penis (men only), or I tried to put my fingers or objects (all respondents) into someone's butt without their consent by:**	0 1 2 3+	0 1 2 3+
	a. Telling lies, threatening to end the relationship, threatening to spread rumors about them, making promises about the future I knew were untrue, or continually verbally pressuring them after they said they didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	b. Showing displeasure, criticizing their sexuality or attractiveness, getting angry but not using physical force after they said they didn't want to.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	c. Taking advantage when they were too drunk or out of it to stop what was happening.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	d. Threatening to physically harm them or someone close to them.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐
	e. Using force, for example holding them down with my body weight, pinning their arms, or having a weapon.	☐☐☐☐	☐☐☐☐

8. Did you do any of the acts described in this survey 1 or more times? Yes ☐ No ☐

   If yes, what was the sex of the person or persons to whom you did them?

   Female only ☐

   Male only ☐

   Both females and males ☐

   I reported no experiences ☐

9. Do you think you may have you ever raped someone? Yes ☐ No ☐

Appendix B vii – Questionnaire vignette Scenarios and questions

In this section of the questionnaire, you will be presented with a number of sexual scenarios. Please read these carefully and then answer the questions that will follow each question. To answer the question, please tick the corresponding box to your answer.

1. Sam is an 18-year-old, male first year university student who likes to go to the gym, play video games and hang out with his friends. Victoria is also 18 and a first year, female university student. Victoria is a member of a number of sports societies, likes going out with friends and attending music gigs.

Sam and Victoria had met previously through common friends and were both invited to and attended a house party of a mutual acquaintance. During the party both found themselves in conversation with each other, with both using "flirty" language and behaviours towards the other. After a while of talking both Sam and Victoria found themselves engaging in mutual kissing. Sometime later they found themselves in a room on their own. Sam took this opportunity to take things further by engaging in more sexual behaviours, such as touching Victoria's breasts. Victoria tried to resist this sexual touching by moving Sam's hands away, but Sam continued to push the issue as Victoria had not given a verbal indication that she wanted things to stop. Eventually full sexual intercourse occurred between Sam and Victoria.

a. Do you believe that Victoria consented to the sexual act?

Yes ☐

No ☐

b. Do you think Sam has raped Victoria?

Yes ☐

No ☐

2. Jake is a 23-year-old male who works in the local factory in his hometown. He likes to play football at the weekend with his friends and is also part of a pub pool team. Steph is a 20-year-old female who is apprenticed at the same factory that Jake works in. She likes to go shopping and hang out with friends.

Jake and Steph met while working and have been talking and flirting with each other for a number of weeks. Both Jake and Steph's friends thought that they would make a good

couple. During a works night out, the couple became closer and started kissing while dancing in the local club. After leaving the club, Jake offered to take Steph home. When they got back to Steph's flat, Jake asked if he could come in to use the toilet and Steph agreed. After Jake had finished, the couple started to kiss again in the living room. Jake tried to take things further by trying to remove items of Steph's clothing. Steph resisted saying that she had to be up early in the morning and did not want to do anything else, although the two did not stop kissing. Thinking that Steph was playing "hard to get" as she did not stop the physical contact by pushing him away, Jake continued to push things, eventually slipping his hand inside Steph's skirt, and penetrating her vagina with his fingers.

a. Do you believe that Steph consented to the sexual act?

Yes ☐

No ☐

b. Do you think Jake has sexually assaulted Steph?

Yes ☐

No ☐

3. Matt is a 24-year-old male graduate who works in a local design company, likes to read books, and completes activities with friends. Jessica is a 20-year-old, female music student at university. She likes attending music festivals during the summer and dancing.

Both Matt and Jessica were in their local club and dancing with their friends. Matt noticed Jessica across the dancefloor and wanted to talk to her as he found her attractive. Matt approached Jessica from behind, grabbed at her buttocks and breasts, and whispered to her if she wanted to go home with him. Jessica pushed Matt away and went off with her friends.

a. Do you believe that Jessica consented to the sexual act?

Yes ☐

No ☐

b. Do you think Matt has sexually assaulted Jessica?

Yes ☐

No ☐

4. Harry is a 21-year-old male who likes to watch films and has had a number of previous girlfriends. James is a 19-year-old, gay male who enjoys going out with friends. Both James and Harry work in the same retail shop, and both play for their local football team.

After football practice one evening, both James and Harry took a shower in the sports centre changing rooms. Eventually they were the only ones in the shower. James, misinterpreting Harry's friendliness towards him as attraction, took the opportunity to move in and kiss Harry while showering. Not expecting this behaviour, Harry froze and offered little resistance. Even though James could tell that something was wrong with Harry due to his body language, he continued to kiss Harry and started to touch his buttocks and penis as Harry had not moved away or given a verbal negative. After a few minutes, Harry started to fight back more against James. However, James took this as an indication that he should continue, overpowered Harry, and eventually penetrated Harry's anus with his penis.

a. Do you believe that Harry consented to the sexual act?

Yes ☐

No ☐

b. Do you think James has raped Harry?

Yes ☐

No ☐

5. Robert is 20, likes to play tennis and watch old horror movies. Laura is 19 years old and is a member of a gymnastics club where she takes part in competitions regularly. Both Robert and Laura work in a local factory.

During a shift when both Robert and Laura were working, Robert cornered Laura when they were alone and asked her out on a date. When Laura said no Robert would not let her leave by raising his arms to block her exit, and then continued to insist that they go out. After Laura refused a few more times, Robert became more aggressive towards her, eventually stroking her hair, and groping her breasts and buttocks until she agreed.

a. Do you believe that Laura consented to the sexual act?

Yes ☐

No ☐

b. Do you think Robert has sexually assaulted Laura?

Yes ☐

No ☐

6. William and Andrew are both 18 years old, and students who study Psychology at the same university. William likes to play computer games in his spare time, whereas Andrew likes to watch and play sport. However, both William and Andrew are in the same friendship group.

Both William and Andrew have been flirting with each other over the academic year. After the end of year exams, they both go out with the rest of their friends to a nightclub. At the nightclub Andrew spent all night buying William's drinks. After a few hours William says that he feels 'odd', and Andrew offers to accompany him home. They both jump in a taxi, where Andrew immediately tries to kiss William. However, William pushes back as he feels 'dizzy and unwell'. When the taxi stops and they get out, William realises that they have gone to Andrew's student accommodation and not his own. William protests, but Andrew insists that William is too drunk to be on his own. Andrew leads William to his bedroom, where he pushes him onto the bed. Andrew then undresses both himself and William. William again begins to protest but is finding it difficult as he still feels unwell. Andrew then pushes his penis into Williams's mouth, performs oral sex on William, and then penetrates Williams's anus with his penis.

a. Do you believe that William consented to the sexual act?

Yes ☐

No ☐

b. Do you think Andrew has raped William?

Yes ☐

No ☐

7. Sara is a 20-year-old university student who studies Art, likes to draw in her spare time and go for walks. James is a 19-year-old student who studies Sports Science at the same university as Sara. James also plays for the university rugby team and is considered a bit of a 'lad'.

Sara and James have been going out on dates for two months, although Sara wants to take things slow as she has never been in a real relationship. During a dinner date at James' student accommodation, both Sara and James consumed a large amount of alcohol. They then proceeded to "fool around" while watching TV. Sara tried to stop things from becoming too sexual as she did not want to go too fast. However, Sara eventually succumbed to the overindulgence in alcohol and passed out. James then started to remove Sara's clothing, perform oral sex on Sara, and eventually penetrate Sara's vagina with his fingers.

a. Do you believe that Sara consented to the sexual act?

Yes ☐

No ☐

b. Do you think James has sexually assaulted Sara?

Yes ☐

No ☐

8.Kim is a female 21-year-old, 3rd year university student who is an avid member of her local gymnastics club, likes listening to music, and making new friends. Dave is a 20-year-old male, who is a 2nd year university student, plays for the university rugby team. Dave likes to go out with his rugby teammates every weekend, and one day hopes to travel the world.

Kim and Dave first met when their friends, James, and Amy, got together on a night out in the local dance club. All four individuals had consumed a number of alcoholic drinks during the night, but all seemed to have a good time. Eventually Amy decided to go back home with James, to James and Dave's shared student apartment. Being a good friend, Kim decided to go with them to make sure her friend was all right. Once they arrived at the flat, Amy went off with James to his bedroom, leaving Dave and Kim alone. After some time, conversing Dave tried to kiss Kim. Kim pulled back and said that she was not up for that kind of thing. Dave told Kim to relax as they were only having fun and it was 'no big deal'. Dave then continued to press Kim to engage in more sexual behaviours, such as kissing, touching and oral sex. Kim refused and resisted a number of times. However, in the end Dave and Kim had sex.

a. Do you believe that Kim consented to the sexual act?

Yes ☐

No ☐

b. Do you think Dave has raped Kim?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Appendix B viii – Questionnaire SCS-R Scale

In this section you will be asked to indicate the extent that you agree or disagree to a number of statements about sexual consent behaviours. Please tick the box that corresponds to your agreement level.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I am worried that my partner might think I'm weird or strange if I asked for sexual consent before starting any sexual activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I think it is equally important to obtain sexual consent in all relationships regardless of whether or not they have had sex before.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Typically I ask for consent by making a sexual advance and waiting for a reaction, so I know whether or not to continue.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I believe that the need for asking for sexual consent decreases as the length of an intimate relationship increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I have discussed sexual consent issues with my current (or most recent) partner at times other than during sexual encounters.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I would have difficulty asking for consent because it would spoil the mood.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I feel that sexual consent should always be obtained before the start of any sexual activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Typically I communicate sexual consent to my partner using non-verbal signals and body language.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I think obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a new relationship than in a committed relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I have discussed sexual consent issues with a friend.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
11. I would have difficulty asking for consent because it doesn't really fit with how I like to engage in sexual activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I believe that asking for sexual consent is in my best interest because it reduces any misinterpretations that might arise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. It is easy to accurately read my current (or most recent) partner's non-verbal signals as indicating consent or non-consent to sexual activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a casual sexual encounter than in a committed relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I have heard sexual consent issues being discussed by people my own age.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I would worry that if other people knew I asked for sexual consent before starting sexual activity, that they would think I was weird or strange.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I feel it is the responsibility of both partners to make sure sexual consent is established before sexual activity begins.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I don't have to ask or give my partner sexual consent because I have a lot of trust in my partner "to do the right thing".	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I have not given much thought to the topic of sexual consent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. If consent for sexual intercourse is established, petting and fondling can be assumed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I think that verbally asking for sexual consent is awkward.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
22. I believe that it is enough to ask for consent at the beginning of the sexual encounter.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I believe that verbally asking for sexual consent should occur before proceeding with any sexual activity. When initiating sex, I believe one should always assume they do not have sexual consent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I don't have to ask or give my partner sexual consent because my partner knows me well enough.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I believe that verbally asking for sexual consent reduces the pleasure of the encounter.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. I believe that it is just as necessary to obtain consent for genital fondling as it is for sexual intercourse.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I always verbally ask for consent before I initiate a sexual encounter.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I believe that partners are less likely to ask for sexual consent the longer they are in a relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. I have not asked for sexual consent (or given my consent) at times because I felt that it might backfire, and I wouldn't end up having sex.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. I feel confident that I could ask for consent from my current partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. Most people that I care about feel that asking for sexual consent is something I should do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. I believe that sexual intercourse is the only sexual activity that requires explicit verbal consent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. Not asking for sexual consent some of the time is okay.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
34. I would have a hard time verbalizing my consent in a sexual encounter because I am too shy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. I feel confident that I could ask for consent from a new sexual partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. Before making sexual advances, I think that one should assume "no" until there is a clear indication to proceed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. I would not want to ask a partner for consent because it would remind me that I'm sexually active.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. I think that consent should be asked before any kind of sexual behaviour, including kissing or petting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix B ix – Questionnaire Previous sexual history and bar/social club behaviour

You will now be asked a number of questions relating to you and your friends' behaviours concerning everyday life, sex, and sexual partners. These questions are very personal, but please remember that all of your responses are confidential and cannot be linked back to you. Please answer all questions as stated. Remember you can withdraw at any time.

Have you ever had consensual sex before?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Please indicate the number of consensual sexual partners you have had in your lifetime.

☐

Please indicate the age you were when you first had consensual sex.

☐

How often do you socialise in clubs and bars?

Always	☐
Frequently	☐
Sometimes	☐
Rarely	☐
Never	☐

Appendix B x – Questionnaire 'Hook-Up' behaviour, sexting, and online dating questions

Please answer the following questions by indicating the extent that you agree or disagree to each statement below as shown:

1. I like to go on many casual dates with a number of men/women.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

2. I go out to social events with the sole purpose of engaging in sexual activity.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

3. Social media sites or apps are the best ways to find a date.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

4. If I have had sex with someone then I believe there is the possibility that we can have sex again, even if we are not together.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

Please indicate which apps or sites you have used for the following statement.

I have used one or more of the following apps to look for a sexual partner.

- Plenty of Fish (POF) ☐
- Match.com ☐
- Grindr ☐
- Tinder ☐
- Bumble ☐
- Happn ☐
- Eharmony ☐
- Facebook ☐
- Other ☐

Please indicate if you have ever received or sent explicit or "nude" images using social media websites or applications.

- Sent ☐
- Received ☐
- Both ☐
- Neither ☐

Appendix B xi – Questionnaire pornography questions

Please answer the following questions as indicated.

Have you ever watched pornography?

- Yes ☐
- No ☐

If "Yes", how often do you watch pornography?

- Occasionally ☐
- Weekly ☐
- Daily ☐

Also, if “Yes”, to what extent do you agree with the following statement?

Hard core pornography that depicts people being forced to have sex turns me on.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

Do you, or have you ever masturbated while watching pornography?

Yes ☐

No ☐

If so, do you do it regularly (2 or more times a week)?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Appendix B xii – Questionnaire peer pressure questions

Please answer the following questions by indicating the extent that you agree or disagree with the statements as shown:

1. If I am single my friends constantly push me to go on dates.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

2. I feel left out when I am single, as all my friends are in some sort of relationship.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

3. I am jealous of my friends and their romantic relationships.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

4. I get teased a lot by friends if I have not had sex for a long time.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

5. All my friends are in sexual relationships; therefore, I feel pressured to also have sex regularly.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

6. I don't want to be the only one in my friendship group that is not having sex.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

7. I don't care what my friends do. I will only have sex when I want to. (R)

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

8. My friends think I am weird if I have not had sex in a while.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix B xiii – Questionnaire negative peer pressure questions

Please answer the following questions about people that you consider a friend.

To the best of your knowledge, how many of your friends have used physical or emotional abuse to have sex with a person?

0 ☐

1-2 ☐

3-5 ☐

6-10 ☐

10+ ☐

Have any of your friends ever advised you of the following?

1. You should respond to a dates/girlfriends/boyfriend's sexual rejections by using physical force to have sex. Yes ☐ No ☐
2. It is okay to physically/emotionally force another person to have sex with you under certain conditions. Yes ☐ No ☐
3. Your date/girlfriend/boyfriend should have sex with you when you want? Yes ☐ No ☐
4. If you spend money on a date the other person should have sex with you in return.
5. Yes ☐ No ☐

Appendix B xiv – Questionnaire rape myth questions

You will now be presented with a number of statements concerning attitudes towards sexual encounters. Please indicate the extent that you agree with each statement.

	Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
1. If a girl is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of hand.	1	2	3	4	5
2. When girls go to parties wearing slutty clothes, they are asking for trouble.	1	2	3	4	5
3. If a girl goes to a room alone with a guy at a party, it is her own fault if she is raped.	1	2	3	4	5
4. If a girl acts like a slut, eventually she is going to get into trouble.	1	2	3	4	5
5. When girls get raped, it's often because the way they said "no" was unclear.	1	2	3	4	5
6. If a girl initiates kissing or hooking up, she should not be surprised if a guy assumes she wants to have sex.	1	2	3	4	5
7. When guys rape, it is usually because of their strong desire for sex.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Guys don't usually intend to force sex on a girl, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Rape happens when a guy's sex drive goes out of control.	1	2	3	4	5
10. If a guy is drunk, he might rape someone unintentionally.	1	2	3	4	5
11. It shouldn't be considered rape if a guy is drunk and didn't realize what he was doing.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix C – Focus Group Materials

Appendix C i – Focus group participant information sheet

Participant Information Sheet

Thank you for considering to take part in this focus group on your thoughts and observations concerning sexual victimisation amongst young, post 18 adults in the UK. Please make sure that you read this information thoroughly before filling out the 'consent' page and providing the information requested in the 'questions about you' page.

What will happen during the Focus Group?

The focus groups main aim is to gain your (and the other members of the group) thoughts and observations regarding sexual victimisation amongst young, post 18 adults in the UK. The questions are designed to gain your overall thoughts and beliefs about the sexual victimisation topics discussed, as well as any experiences you may have heard or witnessed from others you know. You will not be pressured into sharing any personal experiences you have had unless you are comfortable with doing so. Focus groups allow in-depth, meaningful information to be gathered about topics that may affect the population taking part in the discussion.

As such you will be asked to contribute any thoughts or information you have about topics that the researcher will prompt you on and be asked to discuss yours and other contributions with your fellow participants. The topics the researcher will ask relate to findings from a questionnaire on sexual victimisation between 18-30-year-old adults in the UK that was conducted by the main researcher (see researcher information).

To start, the researcher will ask you and your fellow participants to create some ground rules for the discussion. This will make sure that any contribution you provide will be treated with respect. We also ask that you try and keep anything discussed in the group confidential and do not discuss it with others outside of the group, although we suggest that you only share information that you are comfortable with sharing.

The focus group should take around 90 minutes to 2 hours to complete. The researcher may call a comfort break at any time, please let them know if you need one.

Your contribution will be kept anonymous throughout the analysis process, and it will be impossible for anyone other than the researcher to link your transcript back to you.

If you feel uncomfortable or upset at any point during the discussion, we urge you let the researchers know so that the appropriate steps can be taken to support you.

What will happen with the information provided in the focus group discussion?

The focus group discussion will be recorded by the researcher by audio/video. After the focus group, the researcher will type the discussion up into a transcript using your participant number instead of names to guarantee anonymity. This transcript will then be used in the completion of the researchers PhD thesis and may be used in journal article publication, conference proceedings, reports, or presentations. All information will be kept anonymous and your personal information confidential except where legal obligations require information to be shared with relevant the relevant personnel, although your information will be protected in relation to GDPR and the Universities privacy policies.

If you feel after the focus group that you do not want something you said to be included in the transcript you will be given the opportunity to review your contribution and remove any item, you

feel uncomfortable with. Within two weeks of your group, you will be sent a written copy of your contribution to review. You will then have two further weeks from receiving the transcript to contact the researcher to identify which pieces of information you want removed or anything you would like to add. If the researcher does not hear from you within this time, it will be assumed that you are happy for your contribution to be used in full.

Researcher Information

Main researcher: John Pearson – John.Pearson@hud.ac.uk

Supervisors – John Synnott – J.P.Synnott@hud.ac.uk

Maria Ioannou – M.Ioannou@hud.ac.uk

Participant Support Information

If you require further support after the focus group discussion you there are a number of support services available:

University of Huddersfield – Wellbeing Services

Central service building – Level 4

Queensgate Campus

HD1 3DH

Tel – 01484 472227

Opening Hours: Monday to Friday 9.00am – 5.00pm

The Big White Wall – Online support with a variety of mental health and wellbeing issues

Opening Hours: 24/7 Online Support

Website: www.bigwhitewall.co.uk/our-services

The Lucy Faithful Foundation – Support with victims and perpetrators of child and young person sexual abuse

For confidential information and support contact their Stop it Now! Helpline:

Contact Number: 0808 1000 900

Website for Email: **contactus.stopitnow.org.uk**

Website for Information: **stopitnow.org.uk**

Overall Website: https://www.lucyfaithfull.org.uk/about.htm

Survivors UK – Support for male survivors of sexual abuse
11 Sovereign Close
London
E1W 3HW

Tel – 02035983898

Email - help@survivorsuk.org

Website - https://www.survivorsuk.org/contact-us/

Opening Hours – Office hours: 9.30am-17.00pm Monday to Friday.

Online webchat: 12.00pm – 20.00pm Monday to Sunday.

ManKind Initiative UK – Support for male survivors of domestic abuse

Website: https://www.mankind.org.uk/

Tel: 01823 334244

Opening hours: Weekdays, 10.00am to 16.00pm

Call 999 if you are in immediate danger.

Broken Rainbow UK – Support for LGBTQ survivors of domestic violence

Website: www.brokenrainbow.org.uk/help/helpline/

Tel – 03009995428

Helpline opening times: Monday – 10.00am to 20.00pm

Tuesday – 10.00am to 17.00pm

Wednesday – 10.00am to 17.00pm

Thursday – 10.00am to 20.00pm

Friday – 13.00pm to 17.00pm

MOSAC – Support for parents and carers that have had children experience sexual abuse

They offer a safe place for parents to go, as well as advice, therapy, and support.

Website: https://www.mosac.org.uk/

Tel : **0800 980 1958**

Email : enquiries@mosac.org.uk

The Survivors Trust - Provides information about local support centres for survivors of sexual abuse

Website: https://www.thesurvivorstrust.org/

NAPAC – Supports recovery from childhood sexual abuse

Website: https://napac.org.uk/

Tel – 08088010331

Helpline opening hours:

Monday to Thursday: 10.00am – 21.00pm

Friday: 10.00am – 18.00pm

Email: support@napac.org.uk

Rape Crisis England and Wales – Supports survivors of rape in England and Wales

Website: https://rapecrisis.org.uk/

Email: **rcewinfo@rapecrisis.org.uk**

White Ribbon – Aims to educate men and boys to eradicate violence against women and girls. Can provide education and support to men who want to know how to avoid inappropriate behaviour or who may have already committed an offence against a woman or girl.

Website: https://www.whiteribbon.org.uk/

Address:

White Ribbon House

New Road, Mytholmroyd
West Yorkshire
HX7 5DZ

Tel - 01422 886545

Appendix C ii – Focus group participant consent sheet

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Participant Name: ……..

Title of Project - Confirmatory Study to Validate the findings of a Sexual Assault and Rape Vulnerability Questionnaire through the use of Qualitative Focus Groups

Researchers – John Pearson (Reseacher) – john.pearson@hud.ac.uk

John Synnott (Supervisor)– J.P.Synnott@hud.ac.uk

Maria Ioannou (Supervisor)– M.Ioannou@hud.ac.uk

Thank you for your interest in this project. Before agreeing to participate, please read the information sheet. If you have any questions, please ask a researcher. You will be given a copy of this consent form, and one will be retained by the researcher.

(please tick the boxes to indicate agreement):

I have read the information sheet and understand the purpose of the research. ☐

I understand that if I decide to no longer take part in this research, I can leave the focus group at any time. I understand that I can withdraw my data any time prior to publication. ☐

I understand that should I wish to withdraw my contribution I can contact John Pearson via email to request withdrawal, without giving a reason. ☐

I understand that my personal information will be processed only for the purposes of this research. I understand that such information will be treated as confidential, except where legal obligations require information to be shared with relevant personnel and handled in accordance with the provisions of the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) and UK Data Protection Act 2018. ☐

I understand that the information I share, including anonymised direct quotes, may be included in any resulting report. ☐

I consent to the research team having access to any results derived from this study for any subsequent analyses or publications in the future. I understand that any identifying information would be kept confidential (except where legal obligations require information to be shared with relevant personnel), and access limited strictly to the original study team and database team. ☐

I understand that my participation will be audio or video recorded for accuracy. ☐

I understand that the information I provide will be retained for 10 years and destroyed after this time. ☐

Once you have contributed to the focus group discussion, you can request to see your contribution through a written transcript at any time. This written transcript will be sent to you automatically no later than two weeks after your contribution to the project. You will then have two more weeks to contact the researcher if you would like to remove or remove any part of the transcript. If you do not contact the researcher within this two-week time period, they will assume your consent to use your transcript. ☐

I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about the study and my potential contribution. ☐

I have read and understood the institution's Privacy Statement https://www.hud.ac.uk/media/policydocuments/Data-Protection-Policy.pdf and consent to the researchers processing my personal data accordingly. ☐

Participant Signature :

PRINT NAME :

SIGNATURE :

DATE:

Researcher Signature:

PRINT NAME:

SIGNATURE :

DATE :

Appendix C iii – Focus group debrief

De-brief

Thank you for your participation in this focus group. Your time, thoughts and observations expressed during the discussion are greatly appreciated. Please read the information below before leaving the discussion.

This focus group was constructed to discuss information around sexual victimisation amongst 18-30-year-old adults in the UK and validate findings from a questionnaire that was previously conducted. It is hoped that the results from previous studies, combined with the information provided today, will provide a solid knowledge base that will help improve the safety of young people in regard to sexual abuse in the future. Remember, your anonymity is assured when the results of this group are discussed in the future, and you will have the chance to review your contribution before anything is written up.

All researcher and support information are again provided on this page if you feel any discomfort or distress from anything discussed. If you have any more questions or concerns about the aim of the study you now have the opportunity to speak to the researcher who will stay in this room for the next hour or so, please let them know if you would like to speak to them privately.

Thank you again for your time and support, it is greatly appreciated.

Researcher Information

Main researcher: John Pearson – John.Pearson@hud.ac.uk

Supervisors – John Synnott – J.P.Synnott@hud.ac.uk

Maria Ioannou – M.Ioannou@hud.ac.uk

Participant Support Information

If you require further support after the focus group discussion you there are a number of support services available:

University of Huddersfield – Wellbeing Services

Central service building – Level 4

Queensgate Campus

HD1 3DH

Tel – 01484 472227

Opening Hours: Monday to Friday 9.00am – 5.00pm

The Big White Wall – Online support with a variety of mental health and wellbeing issues

Opening Hours: 24/7 Online Support

Website: www.bigwhitewall.co.uk/our-services

The Lucy Faithful Foundation – Support with victims and perpetrators of child and young person sexual abuse

For confidential information and support contact their Stop it Now! Helpline:

Contact Number: 0808 1000 900

Website for Email: **contactus.stopitnow.org.uk**

Website for Information: **stopitnow.org.uk**

Overall Website: https://www.lucyfaithfull.org.uk/about.htm

Survivors UK – Support for male survivors of sexual abuse
11 Sovereign Close
London
E1W 3HW

Tel – 02035983898

Email - help@survivorsuk.org

Website - https://www.survivorsuk.org/contact-us/

Opening Hours – Office hours: 9.30am-17.00pm Monday to Friday.

Online webchat: 12.00pm – 20.00pm Monday to Sunday.

ManKind Initiative UK – Support for male survivors of domestic abuse

Website: https://www.mankind.org.uk/

Tel: 01823 334244

Opening hours: Weekdays, 10.00am to 16.00pm

Call 999 if you are in immediate danger.

Broken Rainbow UK – Support for LGBTQ survivors of domestic violence

Website: www.brokenrainbow.org.uk/help/helpline/

Tel – 03009995428

Helpline opening times: Monday – 10.00am to 20.00pm

Tuesday – 10.00am to 17.00pm

Wednesday – 10.00am to 17.00pm

Thursday – 10.00am to 20.00pm

Friday – 13.00pm to 17.00pm

MOSAC – Support for parents and carers that have had children experience sexual abuse

They offer a safe place for parents to go, as well as advice, therapy, and support.

Website: https://www.mosac.org.uk/

Tel : **0800 980 1958**

Email : enquiries@mosac.org.uk

The Survivors Trust - Provides information about local support centres for survivors of sexual abuse

Website: https://www.thesurvivorstrust.org/

NAPAC – Supports recovery from childhood sexual abuse

Website: https://napac.org.uk/

Tel – 08088010331

Helpline opening hours:

Monday to Thursday: 10.00am – 21.00pm

Friday: 10.00am – 18.00pm

Email: support@napac.org.uk

Rape Crisis England and Wales – Supports survivors of rape in England and Wales

Website: https://rapecrisis.org.uk/

Email: **rcewinfo@rapecrisis.org.uk**

White Ribbon – Aims to educate men and boys to eradicate violence against women and girls. Can provide education and support to men who want to know how to avoid inappropriate behaviour or who may have already committed an offence against a woman or girl.

Website: https://www.whiteribbon.org.uk/

Address:

White Ribbon House

New Road, Mytholmroyd
West Yorkshire
HX7 5DZ

Tel - 01422 886545

Appendix C iv – Focus group participant demographics

Participant Name: ……..

Please provide email address (This will allow the researcher to send you your transcript for review):

Email: ……..

Questions about You

Please provide the requested information below.

How old are you? (Please Circle)

18 19 20 21

22 23 24 25

26 27 28 29

30

Please indicate your gender. (Please Circle)

Male

Female

Transsexual

Please indicate your sexuality. (Please Circle)

Heterosexual

Homosexual

Bisexual

Other

Please identify your year of study. (Please Circle)

1st year 2nd year

3rd year 4th year+

Please indicate your current marital status. (Please Circle)

Single

Partnered but not cohabiting

Married or in a civil partnership

Cohabiting

Recently separated

Recently divorced

Please indicate the option that best describes where you live in relation to the University? (Please Circle)

In the area of the University

Walking distance to the University

Further afield

Please indicate your ethnicity. (Please Circle)

White

- English / Welsh / Scottish / Northern Irish / British
- Irish
- Gypsy or Irish Traveller
- Any other White background

Mixed / Multiple ethnic groups

- White and Black Caribbean
- White and Black African
- White and Asian
- Any other Mixed / Multiple ethnic background

Asian / Asian British

- Indian
- Pakistani
- Bangladeshi
- Chinese
- Any other Asian background

Black / African / Caribbean / Black British

- African
- Caribbean
- Any other Black / African / Caribbean background

Other ethnic group

- Arab

Any other ethnic group

Appendix C v – Focus group topic guide

Focus Group Topic Guide

Introduce Researchers/Moderators

Introduce Topic of Research

I am interested about learning your observations and thoughts about a number of topics concerning sexual victimisation amongst young adults aged 18-30. The topics discussed relate to the findings of a previous questionnaire investigation that was conducted last year on victimisation prevalence and associated risk factors. I would like to conduct this discussion to explore some of the issues identified in the survey in greater depth. This is to help expand our knowledge of sexual victimisation which could lead to a number of support and awareness strategies. This discussion should last around 90 minutes, although there is opportunity for it to run a bit later and you can discuss anything you want privately with the moderator at the end.

Ask participants to read information sheet and fill out consent form

Give time for the group to discuss and agree on group norms and confidentiality principles

- Include respect for others' opinions, do not talk over each other and how they should not discuss information raised with others outside of the group, if they have not already done so.

Start Recording

Describe how we are defining sexual victimisation – Those that have experienced unwanted sexual contact, such as groping, rubbing or touching, being coerced into unwanted sexual intercourse and rape, as well as attempted coercion or rape.

Topic 1 – Prevalence

The results of the questionnaire found that a large proportion (almost 1/3) of young people (18-30-year-olds) had reported one type of sexual victimisation, either unwanted sexual contact (groping etc.), being coerced into unwanted sexual activity or rape, in the past 12 months. Does this figure surprise you?

Informed by your observations as a young person in the UK, do you think that certain demographical groups are more vulnerable to sexual victimisation than others? If so which ones and why? (Provide examples, such as those of different gender, sexuality, age, and ethnicity etc. if participants are stuck).

(If not already mentioned) It is widely thought that undergraduate students are particularly vulnerable to sexual assault and rape experiences. How does this statement relate to your own thoughts and observations concerning the sexual vulnerability of undergraduate students?

(If not already mentioned) In your opinion, why do you think younger people may be more vulnerable to sexual assault and rape than those who are older?

(If not already mentioned) Do you believe that a person's sexuality will have an effect on their vulnerability to sexual assault or rape?

(If not already mentioned) How do you think a person's relationship status interacts with their vulnerability to sexual assault or rape? E.g., if they are single, partnered or married etc.

The questionnaire also tested which strategies perpetrators used to gain unwanted sex to reported victims. These included coercing someone into unwanted sexual acts, taking advantage of those who are intoxicated or threatening/using force. In your opinion, which do you believe was the most common strategy used against victims aged 18-30 and why? (Follow up the discussion to gain meaningful insights).

Risk factors that potentially increase sexual vulnerability

The questionnaire also tried to identify risk factors and predictors of sexual assault amongst the sample of 18-30-year-old participants. The next set of questions will look to gain your thoughts and opinions on a number of potential risk factor topics. I must point out that it is never a survivor of sexual assault's fault for their victimisation, and they should never be expected to change their lifestyle to avoid these experiences. The point of this research is to try and identify common predictors to support and raise awareness amongst potential victims and create prevention programmes for potential offenders.

1. In your opinion, do you think that those who have a higher number of consensual sexual partners may be more vulnerable to unwanted sexual experiences? Why do you think this? Does anyone disagree?
2. Similar to the last question, from your observations do you think people who engage in a higher number of casual dates with a number of men/women are more likely to experience sexual assault or rape? Why do you think this? Does anyone disagree?
3. In modern society, a large number of individuals now use dating apps or websites to find sexual partners as well as those they want to enter a relationship with. In your opinion, do you think that using dating apps to find a partner may increase a person's vulnerability to unwanted sexual experiences? Why do you think this? Does anyone disagree?
4. While on the topic of social media and dating, a large number of individuals report that they have both sent and received explicit or 'nude' pictures to some via social media or a dating app, otherwise known as 'sexting'. Do you think sending a sext message or coercing someone to send a sext message may increase a person's vulnerability to negative sexual experiences? Why do you think this? Does anyone disagree? (Participants may need prompting with exploring this topic, e.g., could sending a sext message increase a person's expectation of sex if they meet up?).
5. (Depending on answer to the last question) – Do you think that people who do not send sext messages are less likely to experience negative sexual experiences? Why do you think this? Does anyone disagree?
6. In your opinion, do you think that those who go out and socialise more, such as to bars, clubs, or house parties, are more likely to be sexually assaulted or raped than those who tend to stay in more? Why do you think this? Does anyone disagree?
7. From your observations, which student year do you think are more at risk of sexual assault and rape? Why do you think this? Does anyone disagree?

Do you think that there is anything else that may lead to a higher risk of sexual victimisation amongst 18–30-year-olds?

Consent

The final topic of discussion relates to your observations and thoughts on consent to sexual activity and if this has a relationship with sexual victimisation.

How would you describe a consensual sexual encounter?

Do you believe that there needs to be certain factors present for a sexual encounter to be considered consensual or sexual assault or rape? If so, what do you think needs to be present and why?

Do you think that people believe that they have control over how they communicate their consent to others for sexual encounters? Why?

Do you think that people have positive or negative attitudes in how they ask for consent? For example, that they are enthusiastic with gaining a partner's consent, or do not think it is necessary/ do not like asking for consent? Why?

Do you think people are more likely to ask for consent directly (i.e., verbally), or more indirectly through body language? Why?

Do you believe that people tend to discuss consent openly with their partners or friends? Why?

Do you think there are any beliefs that are commonly shared by people concerning sexual consent? If so, what do you think they are?

What is your opinion on these common sexual norms?

- If you are in a long-term relationship, you do not have to ask for consent.
- Sexual consent is only needed in casual encounters or in a new relationship.
- It is a woman's job to indicate consent and a mans to push for the sexual encounter.

In your opinion, do you believe that negative sexual experiences, such as sexual assault or rape are the result of a miscommunication of consent between two individuals. Why do you think this? Does anyone disagree?

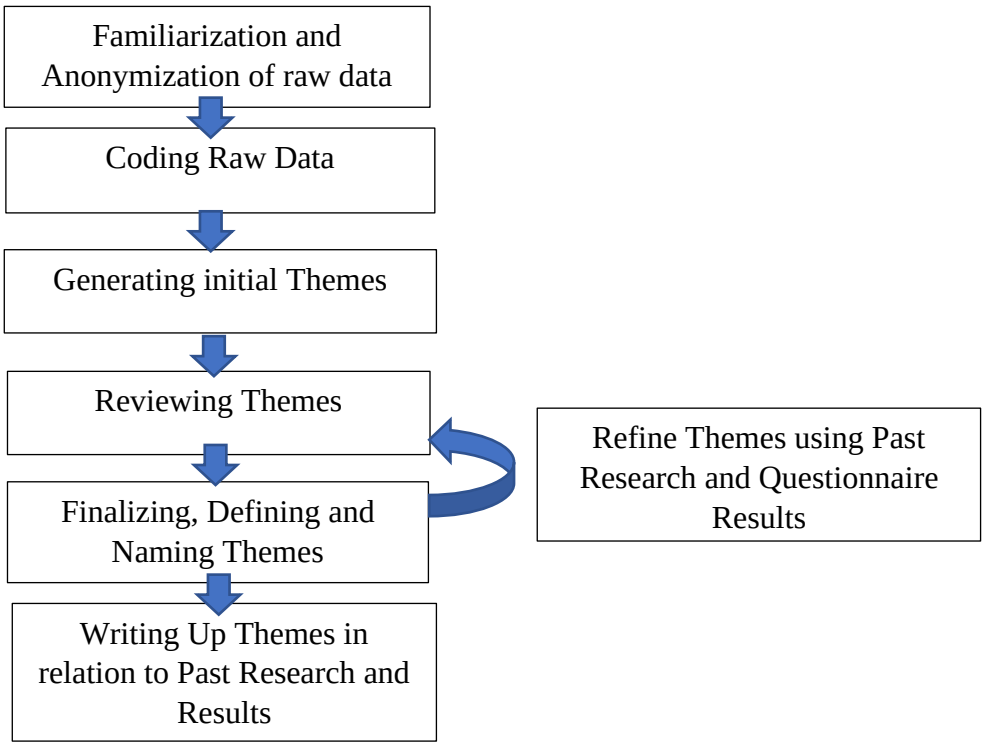
Also, do you have any comments regarding the belief that some people do not report their victimisation or support those that have been victimised because they do not fully understand what sexual assault and/or rape is? Why do you think this? Does anyone disagree? (This can be the definition in law or personal definitions.)

Thank you for your time, comments, and participation. That is all we need for today. Please read the de-brief form that the researcher will hand to you. If you have any further questions or want to speak to the researcher privately then please hang back.

Any questions?

Appendix D - Audit Trail for Qualitative Analysis

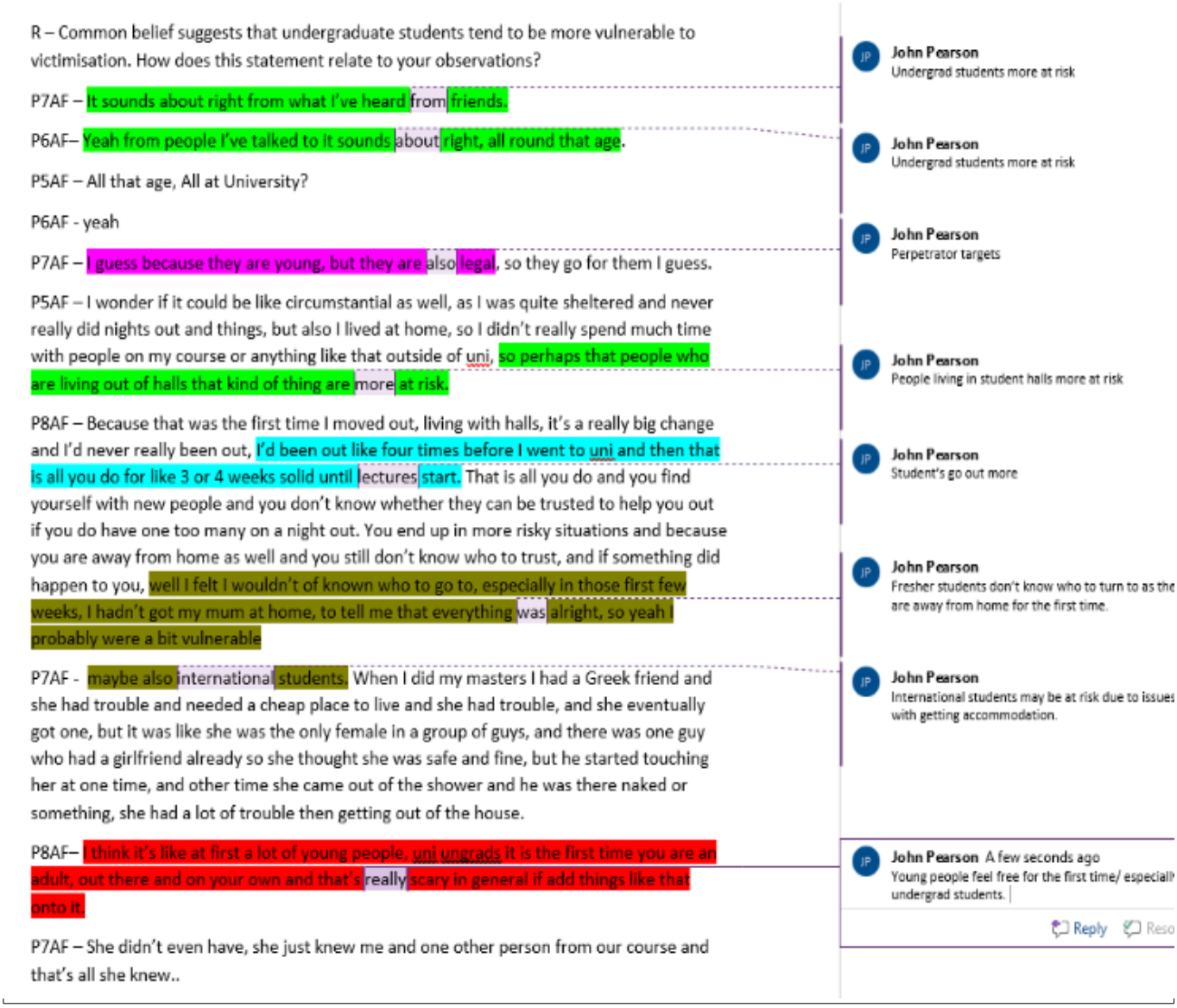
Thematic analysis process – Braun and Clarke (2006)



Raw data coding- Example

Mixed Group

Female Group



**Green = Undergraduates are more at risk.*

Red = Young people feel freedom for the first time.

Blue = Comments relating to social activities in bars/clubs and alcohol.

Pink – Perp targets.

Brown = Type of students at risk

Yellow = non-students have more responsibility than students.

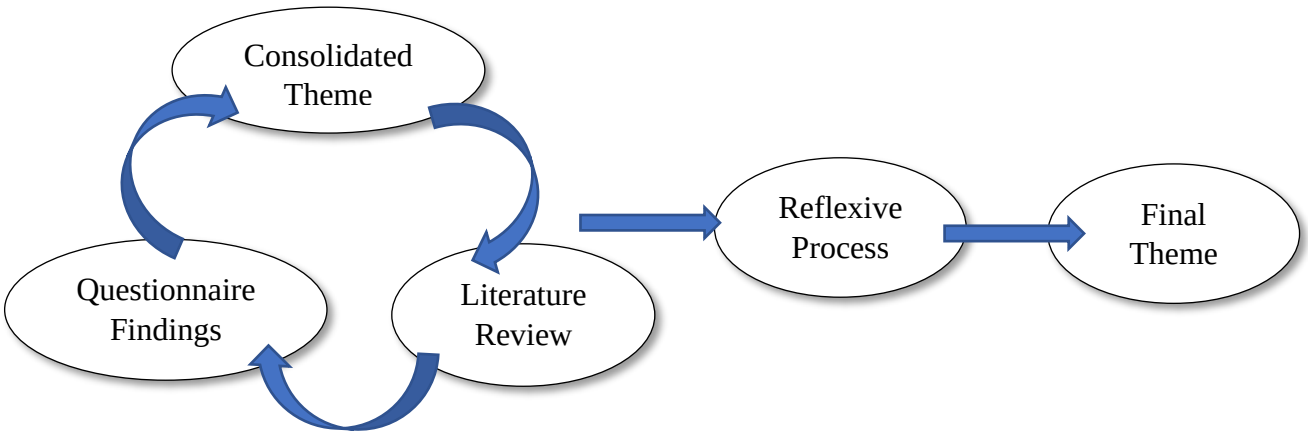
Purple = non-students also at risk of sexual victimisation.

Collation of codes and creation of initial and final themes – Example

<table>
<tr><th>Codes</th><th>Initial Themes</th><th>Consolidated Theme</th><th>Final Theme after Validation</th></tr>
<tr><td>Belief that undergraduate students are more at risk.</td><td rowspan="11">Undergraduate students are more at risk due to their new environments, risky behaviours, and expectations.</td><td rowspan="13">All young people are at risk of sexual victimisation as they take advantage of their newfound freedom to attend risky environments or engage in behaviours that are seen as risky, but undergraduate students are at higher risk</td><td rowspan="13">Young people are at higher risk as they take advantage of their newfound freedom, but undergraduate students have more opportunity to take risks</td></tr>
<tr><td>Undergraduate students go out more and so are more at risk.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Alcohol is more present among university students.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Undergraduate students who come from rural environments/different environments may be more at risk due to classic university culture and environments in big cities.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Perpetrators can target undergrad students as legal and young.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Students living in student accommodation may be more at risk.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Freshers’ students are more at risk as they do not know who to turn to.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Freshers’ students are more at risk due to traditional fresher’s activities.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Young fresher women expect sexual assault to occur in clubs.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Young fresher women who are just starting university may not know if they should push for consent.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Young, non-students are less likely to be in risky environments than students.</td><td rowspan="2">Non-students have more responsibility and less likely to be in risky situations than students.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Undergraduate students go out more and so are more at risk.</td></tr>
</table>

Young, non-students are still at risk as they still go out.	Young, non-students are still at risk of sexual victimisation as they still engage in similar behaviours on nights out or may be at risk from other areas.		
Young, non-students in first time employment may be at risk of abuse from those in power.			
Going out with alcohol increases risk			
Young and old women at risk of assault in clubs and pubs.			
Freedom of coming to university for the first time can lead to increased risk-taking behaviour.	Young people engage in riskier behaviours as they exploit the freedom they did not have when living with parents or guardians.		
Young people feel freedom for the first time (Especially undergrads)			
Young people who obtain financial independence from parents/guardians or move out of home engage in risky behaviours.			

Validation process - Example

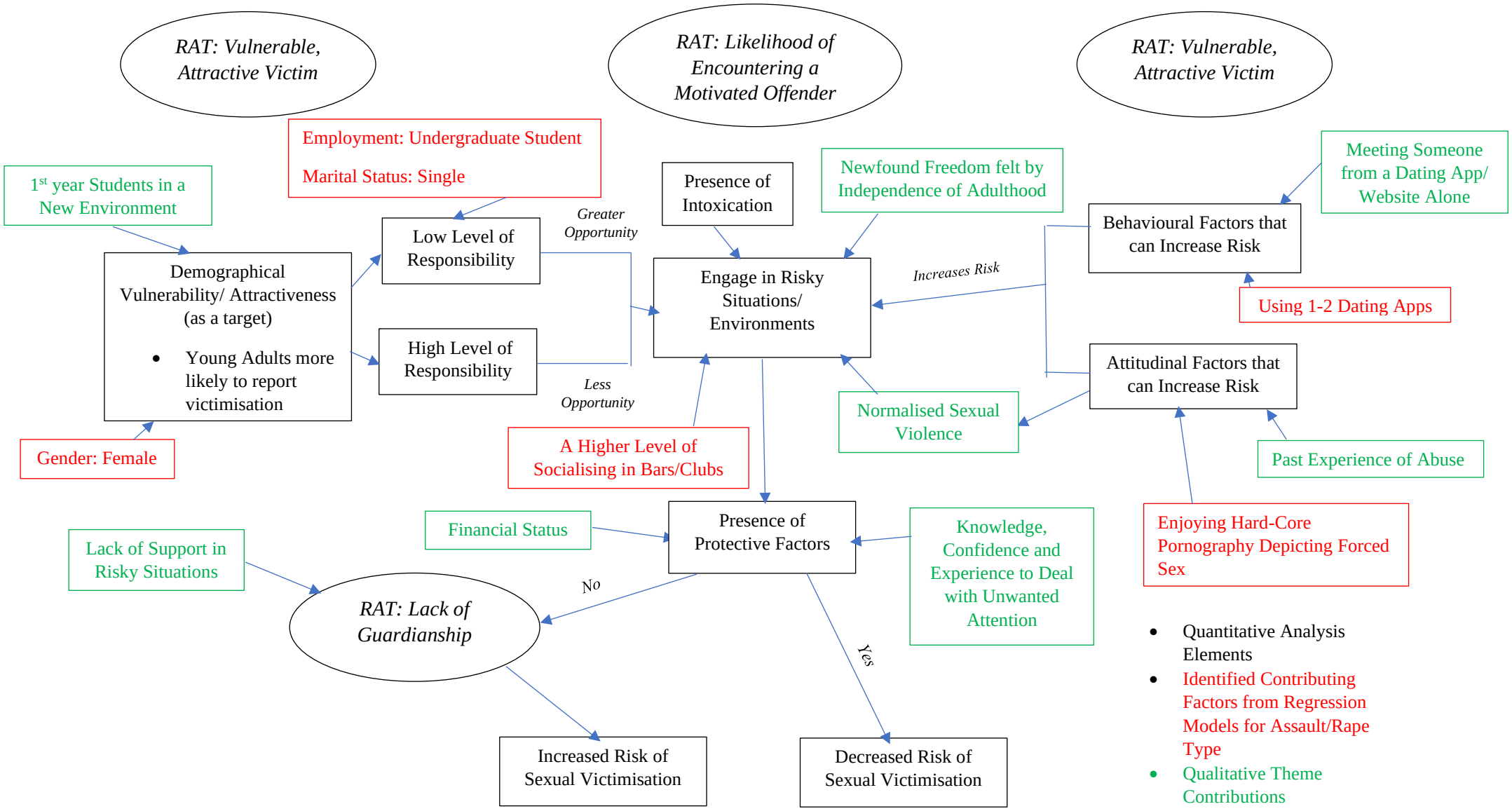


After coding the data, generating initial themes, and consolidating those themes the validation process was conducted to confirm the appropriateness and refine the themes into a final

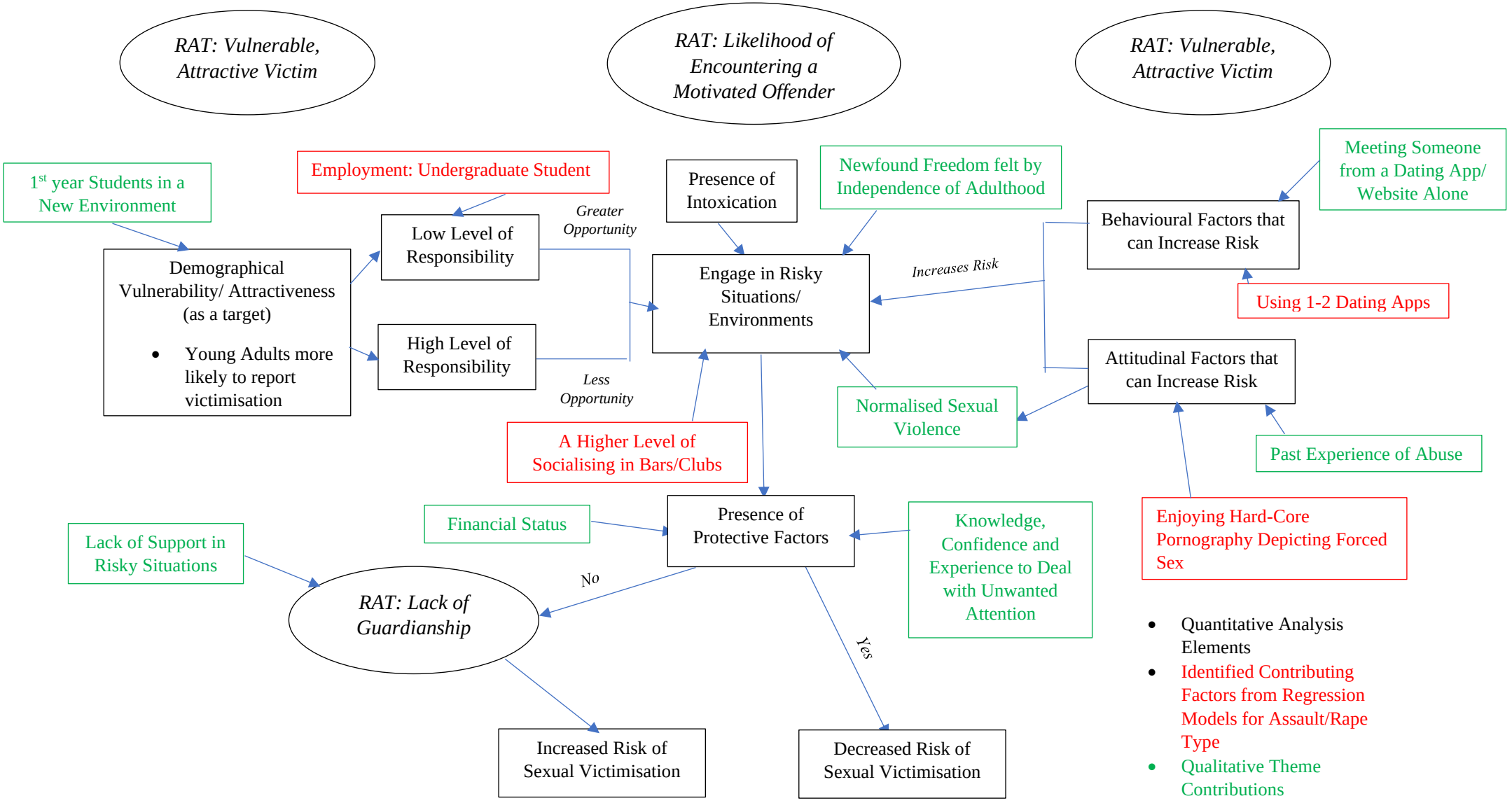
theme that correctly reflected the intent of the data. Firstly, the consolidated theme was compared with the findings of the questionnaire and past literature to identify the similarities and differences of the intent of the theme with past results. This allowed the theme to be refined in relation to past findings. For example, with the consolidated theme '*All young people are at risk of sexual victimisation as they take advantage of their new found freedom to attend risky environments or engage in behaviours that are seen as risky, but undergraduate students are at higher risk*' it was compared against the findings of questionnaire that highlighted reported victims of sexual abuse tended to be younger, but undergraduate students were more likely to report victimisation of unwanted sexual contact, as well as the questionnaire finding that there was very few differences identified between students and non-students in regard to risk factors. However, this them needed to be refined to '*Young people are at higher risk as they take advantage of their newfound freedom, but undergraduate students have more opportunity to take risks*' due to the finding of Buddie and Testa (2005), who suggested that students report higher victimisation risks as they have less responsibility and more opportunity to take risks compared to non-students of similar age. After the refinement process, the theme underwent reflexive review to make sure the researcher's identified biases were not effecting the validity of the theme to produce a final theme.

Appendix E – Sexual Victimisation Types Visual Models

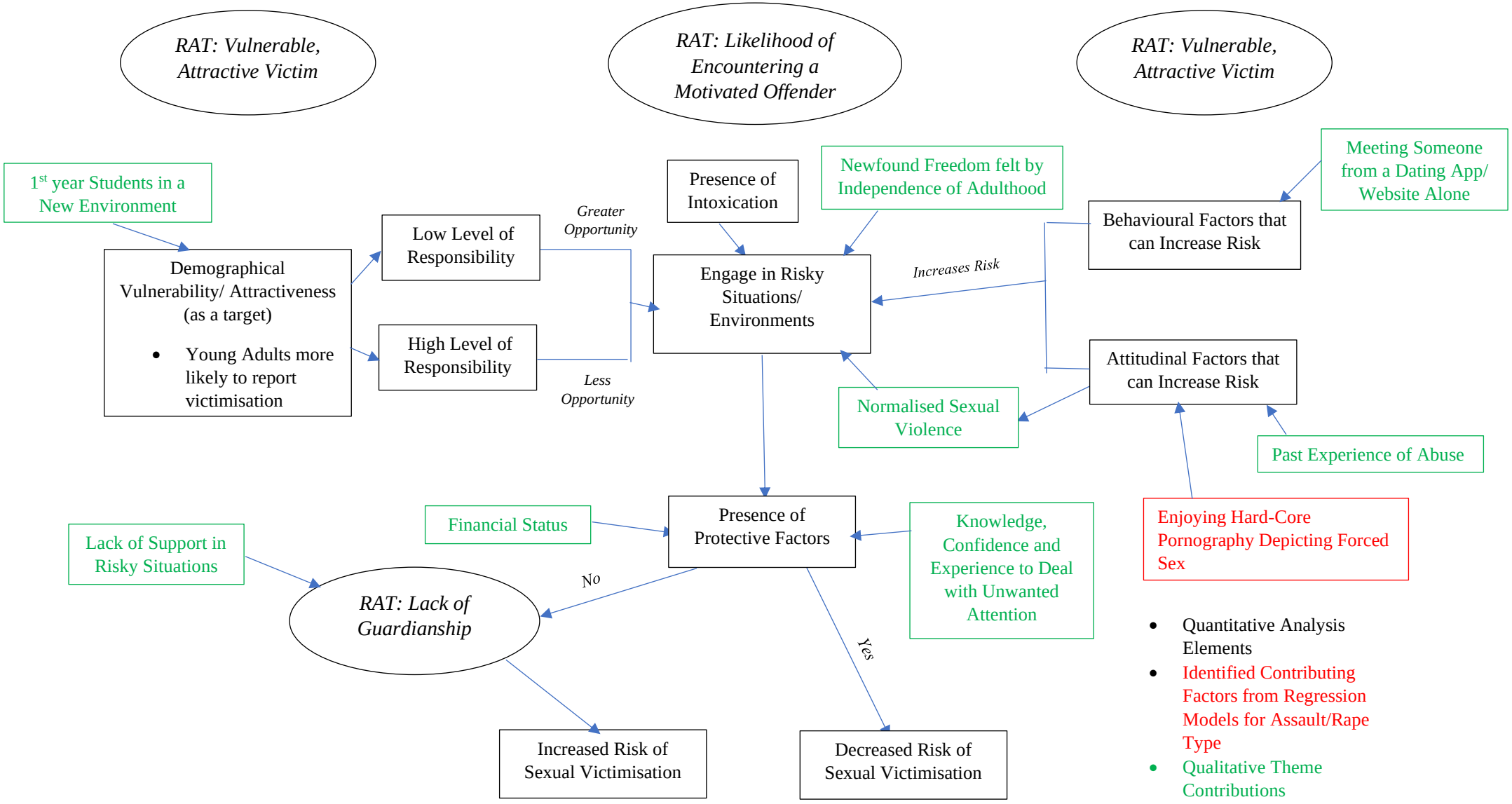
Appendix E-i: Model of Victimisation for Overall Victimisation



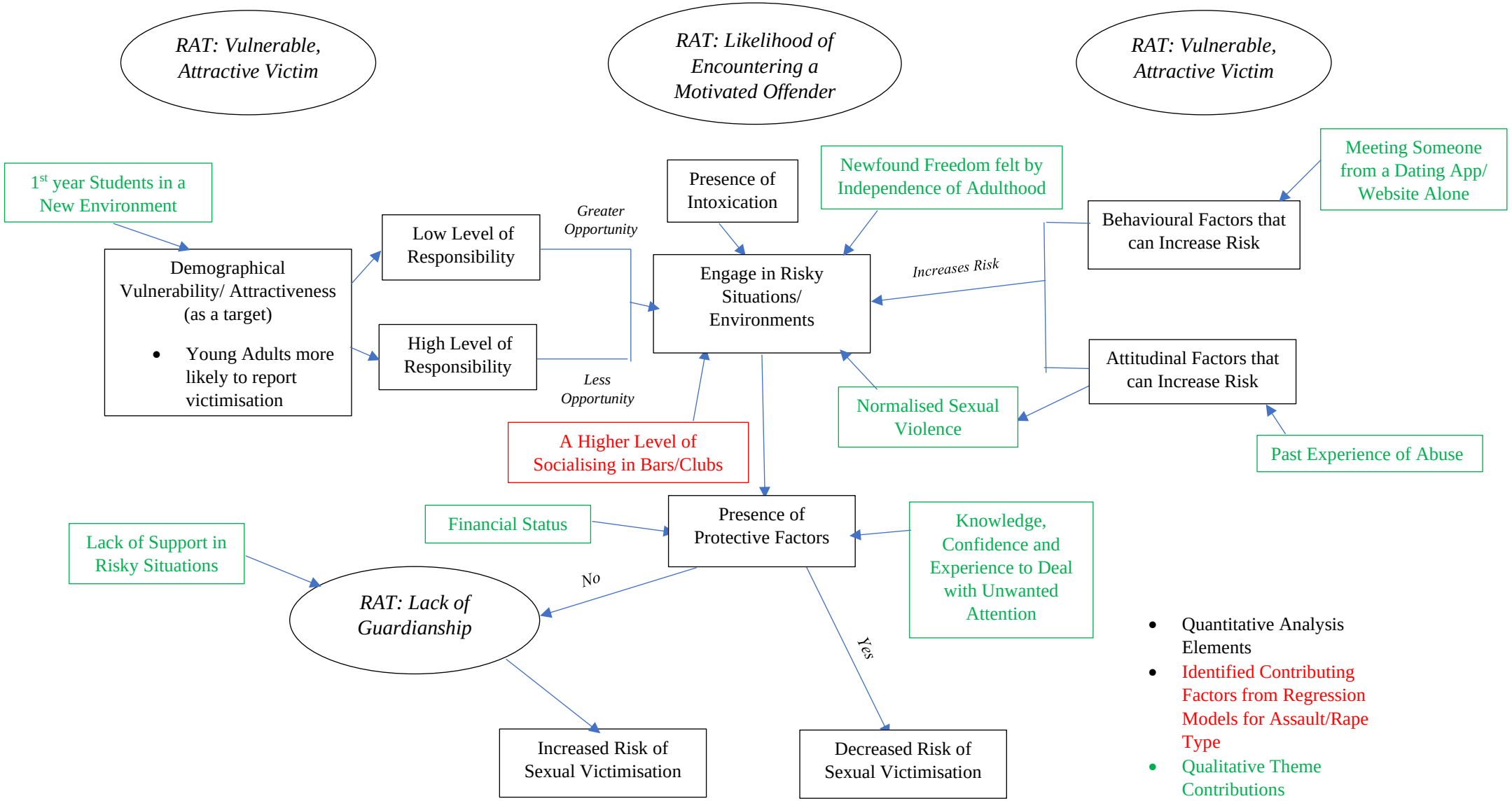
Appendix E-ii: Model of Victimisation for Unwanted Sexual Contact



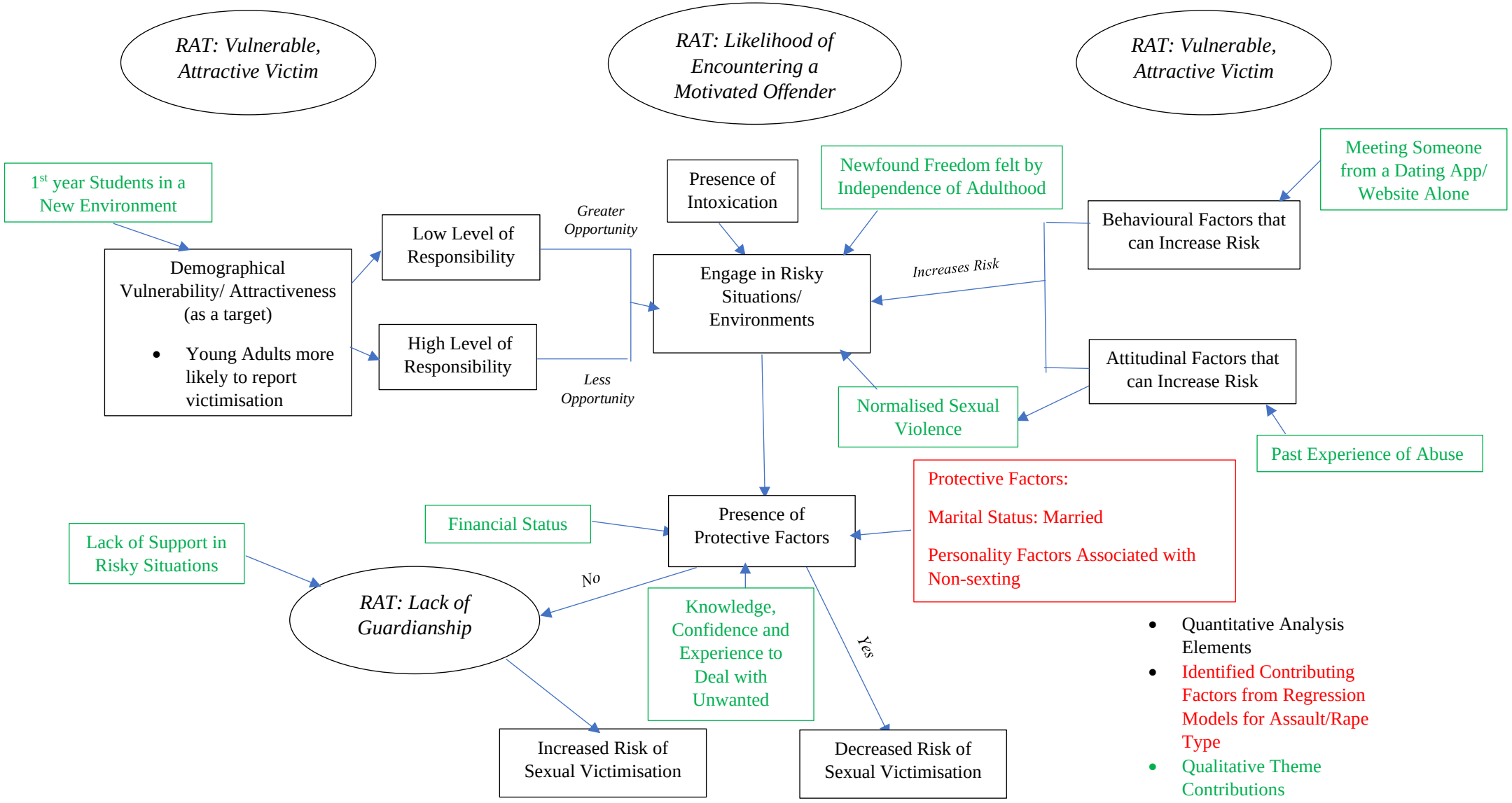
Appendix E-iii: Model of Victimisation for Attempted Coercion



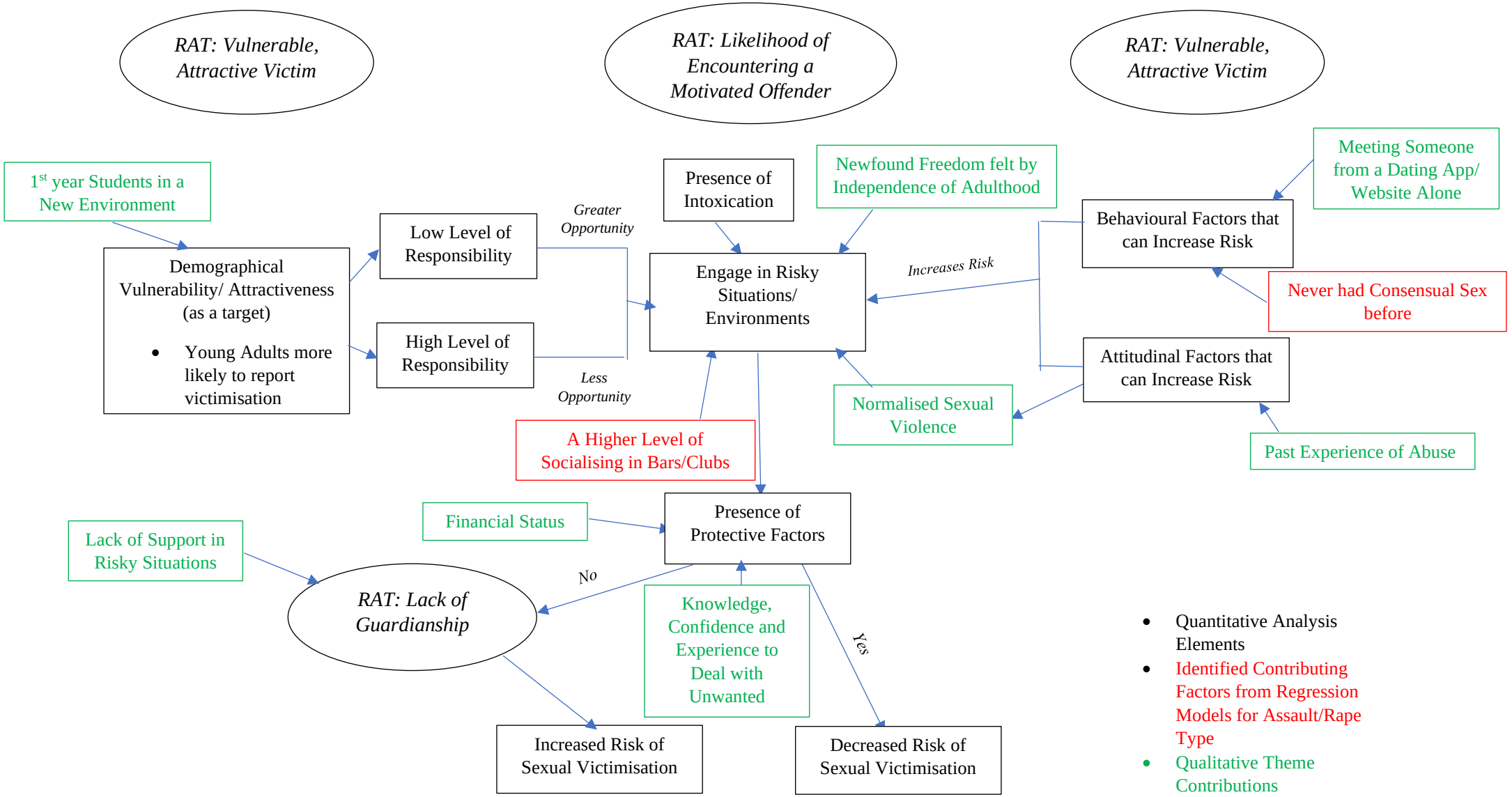
Appendix E-iv: Model of Victimisation for Attempted Rape



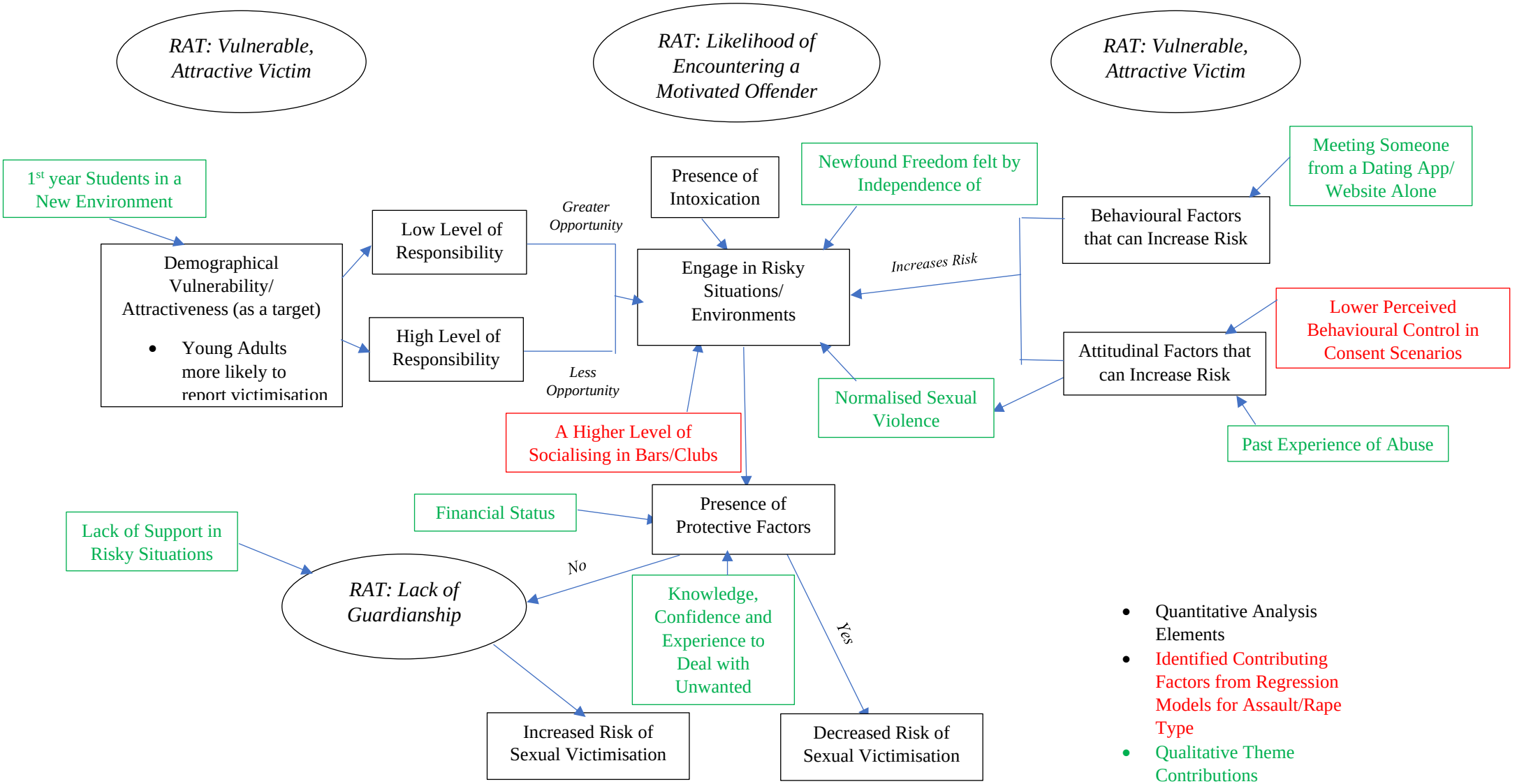
Appendix E-v: Model of Victimisation for Rape



Appendix E-vi: Model of Victimisation for Unwanted Sexual Contact by Intoxication



Appendix E-vii: Model of Victimisation for Attempted Rape by Intoxication



Appendix E-viii: Model of Victimisation for Rape by Intoxication